DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 474 401 EA 032 428

AUTHOR	Hiatt-Michael, Diana B., Ed.
TITLE	Promising Practices To Connect Schools with the Community. Family, School, Community Partnership.
SPONS AGENCY	American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC.
ISBN	ISBN-1-9306-0896-9
PUB DATE	2003-00-00
NOTE	154p.; Sponsored by the Family, School, Community Partnership (FSCP) Special Interest Group (SIG) of the American Educational Research Association.
AVAILABLE FROM	Information Age Publishing Inc., 80 Mason Street, P.O. Box 4967, Greenwich, CT 06830 (paperback: ISBN-0-9306-0896-9; hardcover: ISBN-0-9306-0897-7). Tel: 203-661-7602; Fax: 203-661-7952; Web site: http://www.infoagepub.com.
PUB TYPE	Books (010) -- Collected Works - General (020) -- Opinion Papers (120)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS
DESCRIPTORS	Ancillary School Services; *Community Schools; Elementary Secondary Education; Integrated Services; Postsecondary Education; *School Business Relationship; *School Community Relationship
IDENTIFIERS	*Reform Efforts

ABSTRACT

This monograph is the second in a series, whose purpose is to provide practitioners and researchers a forum for securing the most current knowledge pertinent to family, school, and community partnership issues. This publication focuses on emerging practices that link communities and schools, especially creating the school as the hub for school-linked services and providing opportunities for the students to connect with the community. The school community is explored in eight chapters: (1) "Introduction: The School-Community Connection" (Diana R. Hiatt-Michael); (2) "Educational Reform: The Community Schools Approach" (Martin J. Blank); (3) "A Full-Service Community School" (Joy G. Dryfuss); (4) "School-Linked Service Programs: Opportunities and Challenges" (Nancy Feyl Chavkin); (5) "Schools and Communities Working Together to Implement Youth Behavioral Health Programs" (Carl I. Fertman); (6) "School-Business Partnerships" (Mary Ann Burke); (7) "Community Museums Support School Curriculum" (Lorrie Beaumont); and (8) "Improving K-16 Education Through School-Community-University Partnerships" (Barbara Lieb). This monograph reflects the thrust of the federal direction created by the No Child Left Behind Act. (RT)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 474 401

Promising Practices to Connect Schools with the Community.

Diana B. Hiatt-Michael

2003

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

✔ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

❑ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

G. F. Johnson

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

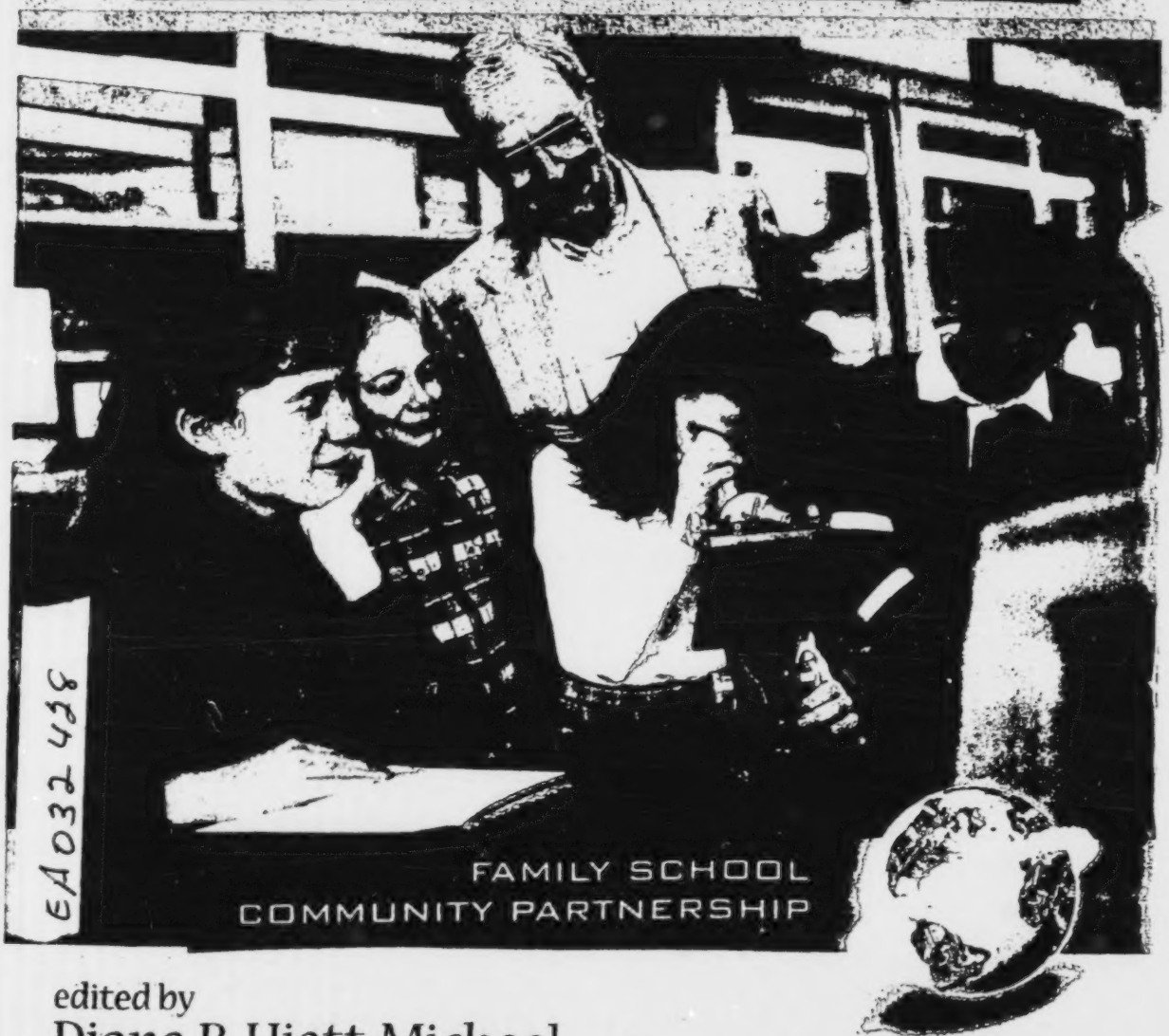
2B

EA 032 428

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

EA EATR 0121

Promising Practices to Connect Schools with the Community



EA032428

edited by
Diana B. Hiatt-Michael

3

Promising Practices to Connect Schools with the Community

A Volume in
Family–School–Community Partnership

Series Editor: Diana B. Hiatt-Michael, Pepperdine University

4

Promising Practices to Connect Schools with the Community

Edited by

Diana B. Hiatt-Michael

Pepperdine University

INFORMATION AGE
PUBLISHING

80 Mason Street • Greenwich, Connecticut 06830 • www.infoagepub.com

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Promising practices to connect schools with the community / edited by Diana B. Hiatt-Michael.
p. cm. – (Family, school, community, partnership)
Includes bibliographical references.
ISBN 1-930608-96-9 (Paperback) – ISBN 1-930608-97-7 (Hardcover)
1. Community and school–United States. I. Hiatt-Michael, Diana B. II. Series.
LC221.P76 2003
371.19–dc21

2002155847

Copyright © 2003 Information Age Publishing Inc.

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, microfilming, recording or otherwise, without written permission from the publisher.

Printed in the United States of America

This monograph is dedicated to my parents,
Mildred R. and Paul F. Buell,
who valued public education and the democratic community
and generously shared their lives and gifts

LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS

Lorrie Beaumont	Evaluator of Museum Education Programs, Carol Stream, IL
Martin J. Blank	Director, Family, Schools, Community Connections Institute for Educational Leadership, Washington, DC
Mary Ann Burke	Program Analyst for the Santa Clara Valley Health & Hospital System Department of Alcohol and Drug Services, Campbell, CA; Adjunct Lecturer, California State University
Nancy Feyl Chavkin	Professor of Social Work, Southwest Texas State University, and Co-Director, Center for Children and Families
Joy G. Dryfoos	Independent researcher and writer, most recently of Inside Full-Service Community Schools, New York
Carl I. Fertman	Associate Professor, School of Education, University of Pittsburgh
Barbara Lieb	Senior Research Analyst, U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, Washington, DC

CONTENTS

Foreword *ix*

Acknowledgments *xiii*

1. Introduction: The School–Community Connection
   Diana B. Hiatt-Michael *1*
2. Educational Reform: The Community Schools Approach
   Martin J. Blank
3. A Full-Service Community School
   Joy G. Dryfoos
4. School-Linked Service Programs: Opportunities and Challenges
   Nancy Feyl Chavkin
5. Schools and Communities Working Together to Implement Youth Behavioral Health Programs
   Carl I. Fertman
6. School–Business Partnerships
   Mary Ann Burke
7. Community Museums Support School Curriculum
   Lorrie Beaumont
8. Improving K–16 Education through School–Community–University Partnerships
   Barbara Lieb

FOREWORD

Diana B. Hiatt-Michael

This is the second in a series of monographs by the Family, School, Community Partnership (FSCP) Special Interest Group of the American Educational Research Association. Parent involvement, as one of the eight National Education Goals in 1994, has brought heightened awareness to the importance of connecting educational institutions and their communities. The goal envisions "school partnerships that will increase parent involvement and participation in promoting the social, emotional, and academic growth of children." The U.S. Congress additionally supported this goal in the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act in 2001. This act is the renewal of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and strongly promotes schools' active involvement with families and the surrounding community.

The purpose of this series is to provide practitioners and researchers a forum for securing the most current knowledge pertinent to family, school, and community partnership issues. Family, school, and community partnerships involve persons across educational and relational groups, including administrators, students, community groups, teacher training institutions, policymakers, and businesses, as well as parents and other family members.

This series will produce one issue annually and will focus on selected themes each year. Each monograph will highlight the most comprehensive and robust theory and practice. The Executive Board and membership of the Family, School, Community Partnership Special Interest Group of the

Promising Practices to Connect Schools With the Community, pages ix–xi
Copyright © 2002 by Information Age Publishing
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.

American Educational Research Association serves as the sponsor of this series. This group determines the themes and topics for each monograph.

As the editorial board discussed possible topics for this year's monograph, there was member consensus that the connection between the school and the community should be this year's focus. We assumed an even greater commitment to our theme as we witnessed the importance of community in action following the events on September 11, 2001. Because there are many community services that support special education, this population and their families will be excluded from discussion in this monograph, but will become the focus for the FSCP Monograph in 2003. The focus of the current monograph is the emerging practices that link communities and schools, especially creating the school as the hub for school-linked services and providing opportunities for the students to connect with the community. This monograph reflects the thrust of the federal direction created by the No Child Left Behind Act.

You will note in the chapters the sparse research on the effects of the community school. The previous decades have fostered the increase of these schools based upon school need. This is a call to assess the outcomes of this reform. Some argue that the community school is a complex environment to study; however, well-designed assessments could isolate variables and determine the effects of each as separate entities that make a difference. Further analyses might determine the accumulative effects of selected variables. In addition, research regarding satisfaction levels of the various program service providers and end-users of these services should be supported.

Authors who were recognized by their colleagues for particular research interest as well as significant practical experience were actively solicited. The introduction by the series editor familiarizes the reader with the concept of the community school and aspects of the community that may be linked to the school. This introduction concludes with contemporary examples at the primary school, middle school, and high school levels, suggesting to the reader how your school, district, or community group may become connected.

Martin Blank and Joy Dryfoos are noted leaders and scholars in the community school approach. Their respective chapters outline arguments for this concept and give various examples. Dryfoos is intimately cognizant of the workings of Quitman School and reveals the challenges to that school as it grew into a community school.

Nancy Chavkin is a nationally recognized advocate and researcher of the service-linked school. Her work describes the value and practices related to organizing the school site as an ideal place for social services to students and their families.

Carl Fertman adds an extensive knowledge regarding health-related services to the school. He works with numerous services and schools. He defines behavioral health as encompassing social, emotional, and mental issues and concerns, spanning across treatment, prevention, wellness, and health promotion. Examples include drugs, alcohol, depression, child abuse, anger management, conflict resolution, and bullying. Because schools are places where children and teenagers are easily accessible on a regular basis, schools are an optimal setting to address their behavioral health needs.

Mary Ann Burke's focus is on business partnerships with schools. She shares extensive research and suggestions on how businesses and schools connect for mutual benefit. As recipients of the schools' graduates, businesses directly benefit from school-linked activities. Although mentoring, job shadowing, and providing added resources appear to be business gifts to the school and students, Burke argues that competent students who possess direct knowledge of the business activities and requirements for success will ultimately support businesses in the community.

Lorrie Beaumont has worked with museums and other culturally related community sites that are a rich resource for teachers' professional development and offer opportunities for student visits and learning. She describes how these sites are reaching out to schools and teachers. Teachers simply have to call, visit, or get online to connect with services that may be free or low-cost.

In the concluding chapter, Barbara Lieb, from the U.S. Office of Education, shares the encompassing picture of schools, the community, and institutions of higher education. She reveals the development and benefits of interconnecting these three major institutional entities. She will leave you, the reader, with her abiding conviction that all of us are service- and learning-related. Together we are greater than the sum of our parts.

Please advise us regarding the worth and use of this monograph to you and others. The series editor may be reached at dmichael@pepperdine.edu.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

As Editor of the Family, School, Community Partnership Special Interest Group's monograph, I extend my appreciation to the Executive Board of this American Education Research Association Special Interest Group and Ollie Moles, who serve as the editorial board for this series. Their wisdom, suggestions, and support bring together the best scholars to contribute their wisdom to this monograph. The editorial board for this monograph includes the following:

Diana B. Hiatt-Michael, Series Editor, Professor of Education, Pepperdine University
Ollie Moles, Consultant, Rockville, MD
Lee Shumow, Associate Professor, Educational Psychology and Foundations, Northern Illinois University
Nancy Feye Chavkin, Professor of Social Work, Southwest Texas
State University, and Co-Director, Center for Children and Families
Patrica Hulsebosch, Associate Professor, Department of Education, Gallaudet University, Washington, DC
Howard Kirschenbaum, Frontier Professor of School, Family, and Community Relations and Chair, Counseling and Human Development Program, University of Rochester
Brent McBride, Professor of Education, Univerity of Illinois–Champagne
Beth Simon, Social Science Research Analyst, Centers for Medicare ans Medicaid Services, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services

I am grateful to the dedicated scholars who contributed chapters to this monograph. Each person has a particular expertise and brought the best of their experience and thought to their chapter. You serve as an inspiration to

everyone in this special interest group. Their names are listed under Contributors. It was my honor to dialogue with each one and follow their thinking as each chapter emerged to its published state.

My appreciation is extended to Dean Margaret Weber, Provost Darryl Tippens, and President Andrew Benton who embrace scholarship endeavors at Pepperdine University and whose support made this volume possible. A special note of recognition is presented to Ardell Broadbent for her sharp editing and Marilyn Angeletti for elegant graphic figures. During the final process, various practitioners read a chapter and provided insightful suggestions. In particular, I treasure the counsel of Patrick Ross and Janet Cosman-Ross, who read with a keen eye and gentle heart. Lastly, my love to my husband John, who never complained about the time I devoted to this monograph, encouraged my hours at the computer, and provided caring support.

—Diana B. Hiatt-Michael

CHAPTER 1

THE SCHOOL–COMMUNITY CONNECTION

Diana B. Hiatt-Michael

From their colonial inception in America, schools have been connected to the communities they serve. As early as the 1640s, the leaders of the Massachusetts colony legislated that towns' parents provide a teacher for the education of their offspring (Hiatt-Michael, 2001). Since that period, a few schools have attempted to be isolated bastions of academia. However, for their daily existence, schools regularly interface with the surrounding environment. Schools hire faculty, secure equipment and materials, obey laws, and the like. Therefore, public and private educational institutions should consider and include the larger social context of family and community because this context affects student educational outcomes and future community productivity. Community members, including parents, who have direct access and information about the local school act in positive ways to meet educational funding requests and school bond issues (Ferger, 2002). These community members are informed through direct contact with the school and its work. However, the 34th Annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Poll found that only 10% of their respondents judged the quality of schools in the community through personal experience (Rose & Gallup, 2002). It is not surprising that parents and community voters support testing as a means to determine what is happening behind the classroom door (Rose & Gallup, 2002). The emergence of the community school movement should reduce public emphasis on testing

Promising Practices to Connect Schools With the Community, pages 1–7
Copyright © 2002 by Information Age Publishing
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.

because more community members will be directly informed about student learning through their involvement within the school.

This monograph examines the emerging development of the community school, a school that connects services from the community with the children and families served by the school. The authors envision the community school as an open system, one in which the school seeks linkages with available services and activities in the surrounding community. Desired and available services will vary from school to school. Each community is different, and each school is distinct. Therefore, it is envisioned that schools will be unique in the diverse ways that they seek integrated services and experiences for their children and families. This monograph focuses on promising practices of many schools and their communities but does not claim to address all the possibilities. Each chapter in this monograph includes promising practices to stimulate your own creative solutions for your particular site.

This monograph's authors offer a different picture of a school than the typical school of the past 100 years. In a vivid description of schools in the second half of the 20th century, Goodlad (1984), in *A Place Called School*, depicts professional entities with front doors and classroom doors closed to the surrounding communities. Children are ushered into kindergarten, processed by teachers and the educational bureaucracy, and stamped for graduation after 13 years. This closed institutional approach cannot successfully work in the 21st century. Parents, businesses, social agencies, churches, and other groups increasingly operate in expanding circles, rather than a linear bureaucratic or top-down structure (Hesselbein & Cohen, 1999). Citizens expect quick and open access to updated information and options. Less and less do individuals tolerate the concept that the professional knows everything common during the last century. Blank, in Chapter 2, cites a recent remark published in *The School Administrator*: "the number of school–community partnerships nationally is soaring as school leaders capitalize on the potential benefits that can be gleaned from bringing schools, parents, and community agencies together to help students learn" (Pardini, 2001). Smith (2002) argues that in the concept termed "place-based education" the "[school's] curriculum and activities arise from the individual qualities of specific communities and the creative impulses of particular teachers and students" (p. 31). This is the concept supported by Burke, Beaumont, and Lieb in their chapters. These authors support how students acquire knowledge, values, and skills within the context of the situation in such a learning environment. All of the chapter authors provide compelling arguments that schools serve as a hub for services to children, youth, and families. The school serves as a natural center for these partnerships because children are required to be there for academic development. Figure 1.1 depicts the possible linkages for a community school.

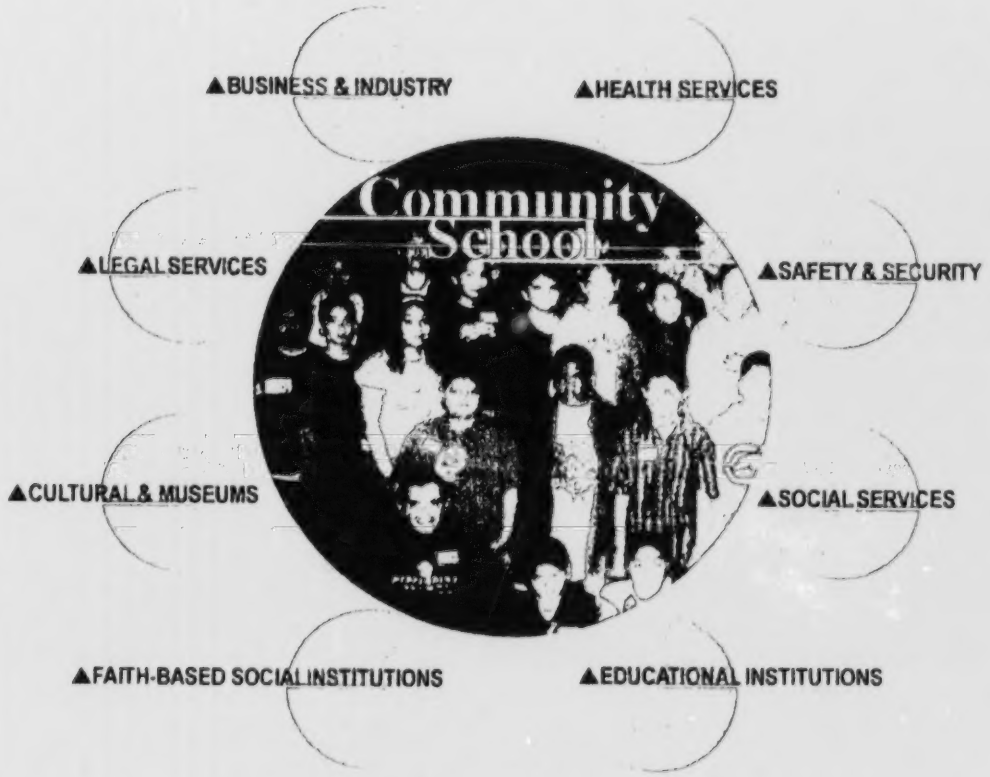


Figure 1.1. Community–school collaboration model.

The school and staff will experience many exciting and rewarding challenges throughout the process to connect the school to the community. The transformation to a community school, similar to other reforms, requires dedication and perseverance. Some moments may seem overwhelming as reported by Dryfoos, Fertman, and other authors in their chapters. However, the vibrant throb of life in the community school, a school whose meaning and purpose move beyond academics to child and family well-being, invigorates administrators, faculty, and staff. The end is worth overcoming bureaucracy, politics, and funding challenges. I will share three examples of the community school across three academic levels within the public school setting—a K–3, a middle school, and day schools for at-risk youth under county governance. The administrators, faculty, and staff of these schools share their stories with you in hopes that you will be encouraged to create your community school, using any space and means available. The excitement is that the school changes as various community groups and services are added, become altered, or depart.

My first example occurred during two decades between the mid-1970s and 1990s within a "disadvantaged" K–3 school within an affluent California school district. The district supported school-site leadership and rea-

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

soned innovation. A beginning principal of this urban school perceived the pressing needs of the families in her school. These families were newly arrived immigrants to California, coming from the Hispanic countries in the south and southeast Asian countries affected by the Vietnam War. With the assistance of a community liaison, this principal actively sought services that would assist her families. In 1990, her school was awarded one of President Bush's Thousand Lights for community service endeavors.

This school exemplified the Franklin and Streeter model described by Chavkin in Chapter 4. Connections began informally among school and agency individuals and then moved to tentative suggestions, implementation, and finally permanent integration with the school. Each partnership has an incubation period that takes time to develop before a new service is implemented. During the years, the K–3 school first added Wellness Baby Clinic services to immunize and care for the new immigrant children, followed by legal services to provide access to visas and, later, citizenship. The need for the families to learn English so that they could join the workforce led to weeknight classes utilizing the school classrooms. Many classroom teachers taught these English as a Second Language classes, thus ensuring stronger home–school linkages. Head Start was initiated to serve younger siblings. Later a branch of the public library was also opened on the campus, providing families with easy access to literary books and materials in Spanish and English. A police substation that was located in the Community Center on the school site facilitated the activity of local police to reduce local gang activity. Through a series of grants, personnel from California Child Protective Services were also housed on campus to offer direct family services. The parents organized an at-school "clothing bank." A recent interview with this retired principal revealed that her modest comment on the school's success was attributed to the networking of the school's bilingual community liaison, her longevity as principal of the school, and district support for her work. "District support of my position at the school," she asserts, "helped me to attract faculty and community groups that shared my vision for this particular school" (J. Buffehr, personal communication, September 2002).

The second example has developed over the past 25 years, connecting and revising as community agencies, funding, and politics change the situation. The following is today's portrait (R. Estrada, T. Johnstone, & M. Sanchez, personal communication, September 2002). Lennox Middle School is situated in a small but densely populated school district in Los Angeles under the flight pattern to LAX. The school district serves a very low socioeconomic population. Primarily, parents are Latinos—many new immigrants—and 6% include Tongan and other ethnic groups. Various family members join together within homes and apartments, attempting to start a new life within the diversity and expansiveness of Los Angeles. The

district has only one middle school; this school is concerned about gangs that operate based upon prior country affiliations.

To address this and other concerns, the school's principals and faculty searched for and were open to collaborate with other community groups during the past 25 years. At present, a Gang Violence Suppression program is operated by the Lennox Sheriff Stations. In addition a full-time parole office is housed on campus and a district attorney is readily available for gang injunctions. In addition, Second Step, a K–8 program funded by the district and *Safe and Drug Free Schools*, offers anger management. A select group of students are trained to serve as peer mediators through a grant funded by the Office of Criminal Justice Planning, using the period after lunch as the most beneficial time for peer intervention sessions.

Since gang behavior is linked with drug pedaling and use, Lennox Middle School offers *Here's Looking At You 2000*, a drug abuse program for fourth- through eighth-graders. The Richstone Family Center, a privately funded foundation, connects with school staff to offer services related to child abuse and family counseling.

Lennox Middle School collaborates with other groups for services to support the family, social, and academic lives of the students and their families. The school has representative groups from each facet in Figure 1.1. St. Margaret Family Center provides a wide range of services for families within the school. They offer a food bank, rent support, immunizations for all family members, assistance with immigration and citizenship issues, and general legal assistance. The State of California's Healthy Start has an onsite clinic staffed by a full-time nurse practitioner and a physician's assistant. Medical and mental health services are free to needy students and their families. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints works with the Tongan families. A cardiologist from the UCLA School of Medicine provides a college readiness program for selected students. This program supports student mentors who guide the selected youth throughout the middle school, high school, and college admission process. Funds may be used for book purchases, trips to colleges, and other college-readiness activities. At Lennox Middle School, students are organized into homerooms and each group selects a local university as the team name. Pepperdine University hosted their team for a day on their undergraduate campus in Malibu. California State University–Dominquez Hills assists students with math and Americorps sends engineers to tutor students in math. Music Center on Tour connects with the school's music teachers for in-house productions and assistance. Boeing, a local aerospace industry, donates computers to students and their families. Students use these for homework and school projects.

The third example describes a collaborative approach between a county office of education and many school sites that serve at-risk youth who are in

court schools, camps, and community day schools as well as their families. Two dedicated administrators within Parent Involvement Programs of the Los Angeles Office of Education serve as brokers between the sites and sources of base, grant, and donated funds. These individuals searched for grants to fund their projects, the method suggested by Chavkin in Chapter 4, securing a multi-year grant from the state and one from the Department of Justice. Though careful stewards of these funds, the administrators sought additional resources through agency, business, and community group support. These dedicated individuals served over 4,000 at-risk students, more than 2,000 parents/family members, and hundreds of teachers and principals each year. Site principals, teachers, and staff at community day schools, camps, and juvenile halls are provided with staff support and activities for families and the redirection of their at-risk adolescent children. Their supported intervention programs connect every group described in the model in Figure 1.1. Social agencies trained school liaisons in anger management and provided bus tokens for field trips and classes for pregnant teens. The police provided gang abatement programs, faith-based institutions opened their doors for meetings and volunteers served as mentors, and museums donated admission for intergenerational families so that teen fathers could reconnect with their offspring. The District Attorney's office gave drug and alcohol prevention. Businesses donated items for children and families of the incarcerated youth and youth on probation or parole. Higher education brought expertise for program evaluation.

However, grants have limited periods, so these administrators are constantly seeking new sources of funding while managing 2–3 events a week. This consistent level of involvement is exhausting, but the administrators are continually rewarded by the benefits shared by the youth and their families, teachers, and site administrators (A. Rosen & B. Wilson, personal communication, September 2002).

These three examples introduce you to some ways individuals and school sites have collaborated with community agencies. The following chapters will enrich your knowledge and expand the possibilities regarding the myriad of ways schools connect with their communities.

REFERENCES

Ferger, R. (2002, Fall). Rebuilding a school: Revitalizing a community. *Edutopia*, 10.

Goodlad, J. I. (1984). *A place called school: Prospects for the future.* New York:McGraw-Hill.

Hesselbein, F., & Cohen, P.(1999). *Leader to leader.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hiatt-Michael, D. (2001). Parent involvement in American public schools: A historic perspective 1642–2000. In S. Redding & L. G. Thomas (Eds.), *The community of the school.* Lincoln, IL: Academic Development Institute.

Pardini, P. (2001). School–community partnering. *The School Administrator* [Online]. Available: http://www.aasa.org/publications/sa/2001_08/pardini1.htm

Rose, L., & Gallup, A. (2002, September). The 34th annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup poll. *Phi Delta Kappan, 84,* 41–56.

Smith, G. A. (2002, September). Going local. *Educational Leadership, 60*(1), 30–33.

CHAPTER 2

EDUCATION REFORM

The Community Schools Approach

Martin J. Blank

Standards-based reform was the driving force in education reform in the United States during the 1990s and remains so into the 21st century. Coupled with high-states testing and accountability mechanisms, this reform has led many educators to a nearly singular focus on improving the academic performance of students.

As the pressure to improve academic achievement grows, increasingly more educators are realizing that schools alone cannot attain that goal. Like people in the related fields of youth, family, and community development, they recognize that children and youth must grow not only academically, but also personally, socially, ethically, and in other ways to become contributing members of society. These educators are working closely with an array of partners to create a 21st-century community school, a school where educators and community partners focus on learning and development for young people, while also working to strengthen their families and communities. The term "community partner" includes any organization or agency, regardless of particular function, that works toward common results with educators.

Promising Practices to Connect Schools With the Community, pages 9–33
Copyright © 2002 by Information Age Publishing
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.

Community schools recognize the importance of high educational standards. They know that factors such as lower class size, strong school leadership, more qualified teachers, quality professional development, better curriculum, better instruction, and accountability mechanisms are critical to the success of young people. They also recognize that helping all children succeed requires the integration of a much broader array of supports and opportunities in the lives of children and youth than simply the academic. They believe that the school, as the single institution in our society that serves all children regardless of circumstance, is the right place to bring these supports and opportunities together.

The community school approach to education reform is not just for poor children. Growing at the beginning of the 21st century is a challenge for all our children, particularly adolescents, as demonstrated by the fact that the worst school violence has occurred in white, middle-class communities.

This chapter explores the community school approach as an education reform strategy that creates comprehensive opportunities and supports for children, families, and communities that achieve real results, academically and in other important ways as well. It reviews initiatives to connect school and community in recent years, discusses the factors giving continued impetus to the relationship, defines a new vision of community schools, and provides evidence of the promise of the community school approach. Examples of innovative community schools are included throughout this chapter, which closes with a brief review of the challenges to making community schools a permanent part of the education and community landscape, and recommends steps for addressing those challenges.

BACKGROUND: COMMUNITY-SCHOOL INITIATIVES IMPROVING RESULTS FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN THE PAST DECADE

The past decade has been a period of exponential growth in efforts to link schools and community partners. These efforts build on a rich history of related work dating back to John Dewey's vision of the school as a center of community and Jane Addams's work on the school as a settlement house at the beginning of the 20th century (Addams, 1994; Dewey, 1916/1966). The community education movement which began in the 1930s is still vibrant in many communities, as is the work of Communities in Schools starting in the 1970s.[1]

Beginning in the late 1980s, schools, youth development organizations, human services agencies, community-building organizations, community organizers, parent leadership and education networks, family support groups, and others renewed effort to create strong relationships between

schools and communities. Local and state governments, United Ways, institutions of higher education, neighborhood organizations, and business, civic, religious, and social organizations also were involved.

Van Horn High School, Independence, MO

In the 1970s, the bottom fell out of the neighborhood surrounding Van Horn High School. Families moved out and housing values plummeted as the school district experienced court-ordered desegregation. Local children were bussed throughout the Kansas City School District, and when they returned home each afternoon, there were no parks, youth clubs, YMCAs, or other positive opportunities in their own neighborhood. By the mid-1990s, things had begun to change. Through the efforts of a grassroots coalition of local community members and the Kansas City School District, Van Horn became the site of Caring Communities, a statewide initiative. A School/Neighborhood Advisory Committee including parents, neighborhood residents, and Van Horn school staff began meeting to decide what they wanted for their community. Van Horn now boasts a year-round health clinic, family service social workers, and a job developer. Strong partnerships with community agencies have brought extracurricular activities to the school for the first time in years. Students produce a school paper and yearbook; participate in debate teams, multicultural clubs, and sports; and take advantage of mentoring and tutoring help.

While Van Horn provides an operational hub, activities reach far beyond the school to help create families and neighborhoods that are safe, supportive, and engaged. Not just school students but all residents in the neighborhood are eligible to receive health services at the school clinic, and parents and community members play a major role in Caring Communities' content and direction.

Strong community involvement also has led to the creation of a 501(c)(3) community development organization enabling the community to seek new revenue sources and expand its agenda.

The publication *Learning Together* provided an analysis of the new wave of what it chose to call "school–community initiatives."[2] The purpose of *Learning Together* was to "map" the range of activity occurring between school and community, so that policymakers, administrators, and practitio-

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ners could have a clearer understanding of the nature of this burgeoning work. The analysis revealed that school–community initiatives employed the following four major approaches (Melaville, 1998, p. 14):

1. *Services reform* is to remove the nonacademic barriers to school performance by providing access to improved health and human services to young people and families. These efforts are manifested in the creation of family support centers, health clinics, mental health services, crisis intervention programs, and other supports for students and their families, and sometimes residents, in the school.
2. *Youth development* is to help students develop their talents and abilities to participate fully in adolescence and adult life by increasing young people's opportunities to be involved in learning, decision making, service opportunities, and supportive relationships with others. This includes after-school mentoring, community service/service learning, recreation, leadership development, and career development programs.
3. *Community development* is to enhance the social, economic, and physical capital of the community by focusing on economic development and job creation, and emphasizing community organizing, advocacy, and leadership development among community members, parents, and students.
4. *Education reform* seeks to improve educational quality and academic performance by focusing on improving the management, curriculum, instruction, and general culture within schools and classrooms. This includes engaging parents, families, the private sector, and teachers more directly in school-based decision making.

Collaboration across sectors and organizations also was a priority for these initiatives. Most of these school–community initiatives were using the services reform and youth development approaches, with fewer focused on community development and education reform.

Perhaps Melaville's most significant finding was that "while each initiative is more closely aligned with one major approach than another, most are influenced by all of them. Thus the school–community terrain is not so much characterized by disconnected or conflicting approaches, as by blended and complementary approaches that constitute an emerging field of practice" (1998, p. 18). On the ground, a new vision of schooling was emerging that "brought the unique and valuable perspectives of multiple fields to bear on teaching and learning, school, and education" (p.18).

From the perspective of education reform, how were these school–community initiatives influencing teaching and learning? Not surprisingly, they followed an evolutionary path: "Beginning with parent participation, they

move to affecting the school environment and eventually influence school policies and classroom instruction (Melaville, 1998, p. 93). Most initiatives have only recently evolved to the point that they are in a position to influence school policies and classroom instruction. They are beginning to make more explicit connections with the school day, to become true community partners in the educational process.

The growth in school–community initiatives, increasingly referred to as community schools, is continuing and the word is deepening. According to the August 2001 issue of *The School Administrator*, published by the American Association of School Administrators, "the number of school–community partnerships nationally is soaring as school leaders capitalize on the potential benefits that can be gleaned from bringing schools, parents, and community agencies together to help students learn" (Pardini, 2001).

THE CONTINUING IMPETUS FOR COMMUNITY AND SCHOOL CONNECTIONS

Several factors are fueling the continued growth in school and community connections. Understanding this context is important to understanding some of the challenges and opportunities that the community schools approach to education reform faces.

Parent and Neighborhood Concern about Education

Parents, neighborhood residents, and citizens are deeply concerned about low levels of student performance, especially among low-income children across the country. In low-income communities there is a strong desire to become involved in the process of school change with increased accountability to the community. Community organizing groups, such as the Industrial Areas Foundation, PICO, Acorn, and others, have subsequently focused their organizing resources around education and helping parents find their voice on behalf of the education of their children. Sometimes this voice advocates charter schools, sometimes basic improvement in school performance, and sometimes a community schools approach. Jehl, Blank, and McCloud (2001) note that community building groups—organizations with established roots in neighborhoods and a history of involvement with housing, economic development, and sometimes human services such as the Logan Square Neighborhood Association in Chicago—are now more explicit about the importance of better schools to their vision of a healthy community. Given the differences in organizational culture, leadership style, and approach, relationships between schools and

these community organizations can be testy. For example, for educators, conflict is a sign of something gone wrong, while for community builders it is a valuable tool for change (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000).

Hampton Year Round School, Greensboro, NC

Hampton Elementary School, located in a high-poverty neighborhood, is used to breaking the mold—it operates on an unconventional year-round calendar. It also offers a full-day menu of services, supports, and opportunities through its Bridges to Success program, a collaborative effort of the school district and the United Way of Greater Greensboro. School starts at 7:30 A.M. with breakfast. Throughout the year, nearly 200 students participate in after-school science, computer, art, and recycling clubs, guided by teachers who volunteer as advisors. Fourth graders participate in a week-long Leadership Academy. On Saturdays, a Book and Breakfast Club attracts families.

The partnership has helped eliminate inadequate health care as a barrier to learning. With the assistance of the United Way, the school's full-time nurse arranges dental, health, and vision screening and transportation to outside services. Attendance rates have increased and now stand at 94%. Parent participation and children's academic performance also have improved. Average scores on state reading, writing, and math tests for students in grades 3–5 increased from 1997 to 1998. In recognition of the increases, the school was awarded state "Exemplary School" status.

Last year, the United Way funded a series of school visits by members of the Greensboro Symphony to introduce third graders to orchestral music during which students participated in mini-concerts. Encouraged by the children's enthusiastic response, the orchestra sought additional resources. This year, 12 highly motivated students selected by the school will be given the opportunity to study a stringed instrument for three years. Those who keep up with their lessons will be invited to join the orchestra's junior string ensemble.

Public Engagement as a Tool for School Reform

Not only is the community reaching into the schools, but schools are reaching out. Responding to concerns about public education, educators

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

have moved to create major "public engagement" strategies as a vital component of education reform. Dialogue with community is now commonplace, and contribute to education reform and school and community connections (Fisher, 1998). This dialogue is still not always based on mutuality of interest, however. A 2001 survey by Public Agenda indicates that 27 percent of superintendents see public engagement as helping the schools to be more responsive to the concerns of the community while 65 percent see public engagement as helping the community to be more supportive of the schools.

Parents in the Workplace and Crime Prevention

Welfare reform moved many parents into the workplace in the late 1990s (Administration for Children and Families, 1996). At the same time there was increased recognition of the fact that most juvenile crime occurred in the after-school hours, between 3:00 and 6:00 P.M. (Newman, Fox, Flynn, & Christeson, 2000). After-school programs became a major public policy response to these two realities, as well as a resource for support of student learning and youth development. Voters, by two to one, prefer the schools as the place for the implementation of after-school programs (Afterschool Alliance, 2000). This led to a major expansion of after-school programs through the federal 21st Century Community Learning Centers (CCLC) Program, which grew from $1 million to $846 million during the Clinton administration. Some states are funding similar programs using state appropriations as well as funds from the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families program. The CCLC program has fueled the movement toward community schools by requiring partnerships between schools and community-based organizations (CBOs). While only school districts could receive CCLC funds during the first four years of the program, the Department of Education reports that nearly all grantees have relationships with CBOs, and two-thirds contract for services with them.[3]

Technical assistance funded by the Mott Foundation also has been a vital factor in promoting collaboration with other community agencies. In a significant partnership with the federal government, Mott invested nearly $100 million to support the federal effort. Given their historical commitment to community education and community schools, Mott saw this investment as not only creating more effective after-school programs, but also leveraging after-school programs into more comprehensive community schools (Mott Foundation, n.d.).

Challenges at the Schoolhouse Door

Problems of violence, family crises, mental health challenges, poverty, and other child and family problems naturally find their way to the schoolhouse door (see *www.edweek.org* for a discussion of how schools are addressing the challenge of rising teen suicide rates). According to Joan Wynn of the Chapin Hall Center for Children, "Most students who are struggling to succeed in school don't have learning problems. They may be living in poverty, or be sick or have parents who are unemployed or abusive" (cited in Pardini, 2001). Policymakers continue to put schools in a leadership position to address these issues; however, they are increasingly requiring partnerships with other organizations. For example, the federal Safe Schools/Healthy Students program, initiated in 1998, grew out of congressional concern with the tragic killings in our nation's schools over the past several years. It requires partnerships with law enforcement and mental health agencies. Safe Schools/Healthy Students focuses on violence prevention, mental health, and resiliency efforts in schools (see *www.sshsac.org*). Many states have created similar programs, for example, Healthy Start in California, Caring Communities in Missouri, Readiness to Learn in Washington, and others as far back as the early part of the 1990s (Melaville, 1998).

Recognition of Common Goals for Young People

In 1989, the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development recommended five goals that our society should have for adolescents. They wanted every adolescent to be an intellectually reflective person, en route to a lifetime of meaningful work, a good citizen, caring and ethical, and healthy. In *Every Child Learning* (2001), the Learning First Alliance, an association of the nation's largest educational associations, uses a similar rubric. National and local youth development organizations have created results frameworks that focus on factors such as health, civic engagement, social skills, and employability, as well as learning, thinking, and reasoning (Coalition for Community Schools, 2001).

An understanding of the various supports that young people need to achieve these outcomes is also emerging, which recognizes the role of schools and the roles of various community institutions. An analysis of five approaches to defining learning environments that young people need suggests that these supports include high quality instruction and training, healthy relationships with peers and adults, safe and stable places, high expectations and standards, opportunities to participate and contribute, role models, and connections to expanding networks and opportunities (Forum for Youth Investment, 2001). Creating such learning environ-

ments, and attaining broad goals for all youth, is increasingly seen as a task that requires school–community collaboration. And finally, in the experience of this writer, when asked to whom schools belong, most citizens say, "the community." They believe that currently schools are too isolated from the community. They see the school as a center of community life, with a primary purpose of educating children, but also serving as an important asset to the community in other ways. The school–community initiatives of recent years and the continuing forces influencing school and community relationships argue for a deepening of the school and community relationships, leading to a new vision for our schools.

COMMUNITY SCHOOLS: AN EMERGING VISION

In light of the school–community initiatives of the past decade, and the forces influencing school and community connections, a more coherent vision of the relationship between schools and community is now emerging. It is the vision of a community school, providing a framework within which all of the relationships between schools and many different community partners can come together in a more intentional way to improve learning and development for all of our children while strengthening families and communities. The work of community partners is integrated with the teaching and learning work of the school, and there is an intentional focus on how their joint efforts can reach the results that they all desire for students, their families, and the community. The work of community is not just a nice "add-on," it is integral to the mission and life of the school. Community is helping to recreate school as new kinds of educational and social institutions.

The Coalition for Community Schools (2001) has crafted a vision for community schools that provides a context for the design of such schools across the country. It is not a "model" of what a community school must look like, but rather a resource that others can use in building what will work in their own communities.

A community school, operating in a public school building, is open to students, families, and the community before, during, and after school, seven days a week, all year long. It very often operates through a partnership between the school system and an anchor institution (e.g., a community-based organization, child and family service agency, community development group, institution of higher education). Families, youth, principals, teachers, neighborhood residents, and community partners help design and implement activities that promote high educational achievement and use the community as a resource for learning.

The school curriculum is based on high standards and expectations. The curriculum deliberately uses the history, assets, and problems of the community as a primary resource in the teaching and learning process. Service learning is fully integrated into the curriculum. Professional development supports for teachers and other school personnel are in place, and there is a strong sense of accountability to the community.

Ideally, a full-time community school coordinator manages a range of supports provided by local agency partners and participates on the management team for the school. A before- and after-school learning component is rich and diverse in content, giving students the opportunity to expand their horizons, build on their classroom experiences, contribute to their communities, and have fun. A family resource center develops parent leaders; helps families with parenting education, adult education, employment, housing, and other services; and empowers parents to become better advocates for their children's education. A health clinic, offering medical, dental, and mental health services, may be located on site.

Volunteers from businesses, religious and civic organizations, youth development workers, health and social service professions, college faculty and students, and especially family members come into the school to share their energy and skills.

Citizens, neighbors, and family members come to support, promote, and bolster what schools are working hard to accomplish—ensuring young people's academic, vocational, and interpersonal success. Community schools crackle with the excitement of doing, experiencing, and discovering unknown talents and strengths. Community schools open up new channels for learning and self-expression. Students come early and stay late—because they want to.

A community school also is different because the partners working in the school facility are doing their work in various ways. Schools, youth organizations, health and human service agencies, community organizations, community development groups, government, and philanthropy are not doing business as usual. They are working together toward common results, changing their funding patterns, transforming the practice of their staffs, working creatively and respectfully with youth, families, and residents in order to create a different kind of institution—a community school that takes a comprehensive approach to strengthening children, youth, families, and communities.

University City High School, Philadelphia, PA

University City High School (UCHS) is just one of 13 West Philadelphia schools in which the West Philadelphia Improve-

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ment Corps (WEPIC) approach is making a difference. Drawing on the resources of universities and surrounding communities, WEPIC partnerships develop deep, rich, and thematically related learning experiences that connect academic exploration, community service, and community revitalization. In one joint learning experience, University of Pennsylvania and high school students teamed up with former residents of a neighborhood displaced by urban renewal in the 1950s and 1960s known as Black Bottom. Working together, participants explored interviewing techniques, personal recollections, and the performing arts as a means to study history. The project culminated in a series of "Black Bottom Sketches," written and performed by students and community members.

Themes based on environmental planning, health and nutrition, and literacy were developed at several elementary and middle schools. Feeder schools have also been extended and adapted at the high school level. For example, a university nutrition class studying food supply, control, and usage helped younger students learn about nutrition, analyze their own eating patterns, and create a student-run fruit bar. At the high school level, the focus shifted from studying consumption to learning about alternative production techniques and managing a business. WEPIC at UCHS is focused particularly on strengthening students' school-to-work opportunities.

WEPIC, the University of Pennsylvania, and other community partners have developed a wide variety of paid internships and work experiences. UCHS is also home to the university's newly created Skills Development Center. The center helps students, as well as underemployed and unemployed adults, prepare for high-skill careers. In one initiative, students are certified in fiber optic and copper cabling, are provided internships with local companies, and are prepared to take local union apprentice exams.

WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE COMMUNITY SCHOOLS APPROACH

This section takes two approaches to assessing the effectiveness of community schools. First it offers a synthesis of recent research on community schools initiatives. This research is limited in scope at the present time

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

given the relative newness of the field, and the character of the research itself. It is supplemented by a review of data on the effectiveness of specific strategies that are typically included within a community school framework. These include quality education strategies linked to community as well as youth development, family support, and family and community engagement strategies. Taken together, these data offer a strong case for the community schools approach.

In a summary of what we know about the effectiveness of community school, a recognized authority in this field suggests that there is substantial evidence that community schools are beginning to demonstrate their positive effects on students, families, and communities (Dryfoos, 1994, 2000). Dryfoos (1994, 2000) reviewed some 48 reports that focus on one or more outcome measures, such as academic achievement, changes in student behavior, or increases in parental involvement. In 46 of the reports, some positive outcomes were reported. The quality of the reports varied enormously, from evaluations that relied on very small nonrepresentative samples to those that were based on carefully designed management information systems and control groups. The variation in numbers reporting positive for particular outcomes reflects the specific data that each initiative chose to collect and present. Overall, in a world where most improvements are incremental, the results are promising not only in terms of academic achievement, but with regard to conditions that are critical for students' learning, for example, attendance, parent involvement, and the reduction of high risk behaviors.

1. *Achievement:* Academic gains were reported by 46 of the 48 programs with any form of documentation. These were generally improvements in reading and math test scores, looked at over a two- or three-year period.
2. *Attendance:* 19 programs reported attendance improvement. Several reported lower dropout rates, one specifically among pregnant and parenting teens.
3. *Suspensions:* 10 programs reported reduction in suspensions, suggesting improvements in school climate.
4. *High-risk behaviors:* Reductions in substance abuse, teen pregnancy, disruptive behavior in the classroom, or improvement in behavior in general were shown in 10 of the reports.
5. *Access to services:* Better access to health care, lower hospitalization rates, higher immunization rates, or access to dental care were reported at least once. Many of the after-school programs cited access to childcare as the significant outcome.
6. *Parent involvement:* 11 of the programs specifically showed increases in parent involvement. In other programs, parents said they "felt bet-

ter." Providers reported lower rates of child abuse and neglect among participants, less out-of-home placement, better child development practices, less aggression, and generally improved social relationships. Students reported a heightened sense of adult support from both parents and teachers.

7. *Neighborhood:* Five programs noted lower violence rates and safer streets in their communities. A unique finding was the reduction in student mobility reported by a program, suggesting that adding services to the school encouraged families to stay in the neighborhood.

Beyond these evaluations of more comprehensive community school approaches, there also is data on the impact of particular programs that are typically part of the community schools approach. In the community schools approach, these programs are integrated with a mutually reinforcing manner intended to achieve greater impact. The following paragraphs provide a few examples.

Quality Education

Much evidence suggests that learning approaches that connect students with the community, such as service learning and learning integrated with community life issues, contribute to better results for children and youth. Service learning combines community service and learning; students learn and develop by participating in thoughtfully organized service that is conducted in and meets the needs of the community, and is coordinated with schools and school curriculum (Corporation for National and Community Service, n.d.; see also the National and Community Service Act of 1990). A variety of studies show that service learning has had some impact on academic achievement, student engagement in school, sense of educational accomplishment, homework completion, sense of duty to help others, and sense of being able to make a difference (Brandeis University, 1999). It should be noted that 90% of Americans strongly support service learning as a strategy for developing skills needed later in life and active citizenship and civic involvement (Roper Starch Worldwide, Inc., 2000). A study by the State Education and Environmental Roundtable illustrates the value of using the "environment as an integrating context" (EIC) for learning, "EIC is not primarily focused on learning about the environment. . . . It is about using a school's surroundings and community as a framework within which students can contract their own learning, guided by teachers and administrators using proven educational practices" (Lieberman & Hoody, 1998). An example of the environment as an integrating context is studying a vacant lot down the street and its status as abandoned property in terms of public

health, housing needs, and employment opportunities Another example is building a garden in the asphalt of a schoolyard and addressing soil, weather, and school-site management decisions. The Lieberman and Hoody (1998) study of EIC demonstrates positive results on standardized measures of academic achievement, reduced discipline and classroom management concerns, increased engagement and enthusiasm for learning, and greater pride and ownership in accomplishments. The work of the West Philadelphia Improvement Corps (WEPIC) project in West Philadelphia is in a similar vein, using University of Pennsylvania undergraduates to teach middle school students about the problems of lead-based paint and helping them become community advocates for lead-based paint avoidance shows similar potential (Giegengack, Cressler, Piesieski, & Bloch, in press).

Lake Middle School, Denver, CO

The Beacon Neighborhood Center at Lake Middle School sees itself as "a grassroots effort to promote youth development and community building." With core funding from the Wallace–Reader's Digest Fund and additional local support, it brings education, recreation, and leadership experiences to students attending Lake Middle School. It also serves students from surrounding elementary and high schools and provides continuing education and training to parents and neighborhood adults. Lake Beacon Neighborhood Center is managed by Mi Casa Resource Center for Women, a nonprofit organization that helps Latina women and others become self-sufficient.

Activities for middle and high school students combine enrichment with leadership and employment preparation. Students with experience in the program and good grades can apply for paid positions at the center. Students run the reception area, assist in center programs, and participate in weekly leadership development and staff meetings. More than 60 students have progressed through some or all levels of responsibility, including supervision of other youth staff.

Teens also are teaching adults how to explore issues surrounding cultural diversity, especially by recognizing and getting past negative stereotypes. Youth Empower, a group of 13- to 16-year-olds, has developed a series of workshops and interactive presentations to help adults learn to work effectively with youth, build ethnic and cultural awareness, and help youth develop their own leadership skills. Course content comes directly from the students' own insight, reflection, and growing tolerance. Youth Empower has been invited to

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

work with groups throughout the Denver area. The students made presentations at the Promise Colorado Conference in Fall 1999 and Youth Speak 2000 in Grand Junction. Sixty students have progressed though some or all levels of responsibility, including supervision of other youth staff.

Youth Development

A growing body of information demonstrates the value of a youth development approach. The phrase "problem-free is not fully prepared" captures the philosophy of a youth development movement that sees young people as resources for themselves and their communities, and engages young people in deciding about the supports and opportunities they want (Pittman & Wright, 1991).

After-school programs have become a focal point of youth development activity. Clark's (1998) research demonstrates that children whose out-of-school time includes 20 to 35 hours of constructive "high-yield" learning activities do better in school. High-yield activities are fun, safe, and enriched with "verbal thought" opportunities that inspire youth and give them a sense of potential accomplishment, for example, problem-solving activities; family or community improvement projects; social causes projects; art, music, cultural activities; and reading. Vandell and Posner's (1999) research demonstrates that students who have access to structured after-school enrichment activities had better work habits and were better adjusted emotionally than their peers (1999). Finally, data coming from the U.S. Department of Education (1988) indicate positive impact on student achievement and other indicators related to the conditions for learning (e.g., attendance, appropriate behavior) through participation in after-school programs.

Mentoring programs also demonstrate positive results. Data on the impact of the Big Brothers, Big Sisters program is particularly strong, showing improvement in antisocial behavior, academics, family relationships, and peer relationships (Tierney, Grossman, & Resch, 1995). School-based mentoring programs also are proving extremely popular, and initial data from Schinke, Cole, and Roulin suggest they can have a positive impact as well (cited in Jurich & Estes, 2000).

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Family Support

Family support includes a range of services and supports for children and families, including early childhood programs, family support centers, parent involvement, health and mental health services, and other supports that strengthen families and engage families in their children's education (for information on the family support movement, see *www.familysupportamerica.org*). The Chicago Preschool Program—which offers structured pre-K learning experiences including numerous parent and child visits to cultural and educational institutions in the community, a multifaceted parent involvement program, extended services into the early elementary years, outreach activities into the home, and health and nutrition services—showed significant decrease in juvenile arrest for participating children, higher rates of school completion, significant reductions in grade retention, and reduced special education placement (Reynolds, Temple, Robertson, & Mann, 2001).

In the health area, school-based health clinics also demonstrate positive effects, helping address the severe problems such as student asthma and related problems that lead to time lost from the classroom, and more severe health problems (Small et al., n.d.). Comprehensive school health programs that include health education, increased physical activity, nutritional services, drug and alcohol abuse prevention, and other services demonstrate that health attitudes, skills, and behavior are improved (Center for Disease Control, 2001; Kann et al., n.d.). Schools that offer intense physical activity programs see positive effects on academic achievement, including increased concentration; improved mathematic, reading, and writing test scores; and reduced disruptive behavior, even when time for physical education reduces the time for academics (Secretary of Health and Human Services & Secretary of Education, 2000; Symons, 1997). It is impressive to note that when schools and community partners begin to coordinate and integrate health and social service (including health screening, counseling, dental care, and vision care) into systems that serve children and families to make them more accessible, student academic achievement increases significantly and student mobility is reduced (California Department of Education, 1999).

Family and Community Engagement

Multiple studies have strongly demonstrated that active parent involvement and engagement in their children's education is the most accurate predictor of student achievement, not family income or socioeconomic status, as many may think (Henderson, 1994). Experience also suggests that

community partners are an important resource for engaging parents. The best way parents can improve their child's life chances is to create a home environment that encourages learning, express high expectation for their children's achievement and future careers, and become involved in their school and community. Other research suggests that the mere act of talking at home about learning and school is one of the most effective forms of parent involvement (California Department of Education, 2001). Additionally, specific activities that children and parent share, such as parents reading to their children, listening to their children read aloud on a regular basis, and open family discussions all help to improve reading achievement levels (Epstein, 1991).

Just as parents can have an impact on the school, school-initiated activities can help parents improve the home environment, which, in turn, has a strong influence on a child's school performance (Leler, 1983). When parents and teachers work together, both parties feel supported and they have more positive views toward each other (Epstein, 1992). A better relationship between involved parents, schools, and teachers contributes to a greater willingness for parents to pay taxes to support schools and build stronger communities (Davies, 1988). Additionally, the more involved parents are, the greater the likelihood that they will continue their own education and, in time, be better resources and role models for their children (Henderson, 1994).

CHALLENGES TO THE COMMUNITY SCHOOLS APPROACH TO EDUCATION REFORM

While the case for community schools continues to grow, there remain numerous challenges to making the community schools vision a strategy for education reform in more schools across America. These challenges are familiar to many and include (a) differences in philosophy and approach across fields, (b) historic turf conflicts, (c) families' and community members' lack of knowledge about school personnel, (d) a lack of knowledge among community partners about the unique character and culture of schools, and (e) narrowly crafted funding streams that encourage isolation rather than integration. Additionally, some schools have many partners but no strategy for focusing their resources on a jointly agreed-upon set of results. Some educators and education researchers are concerned that links with the community can distract school staff from their primary teaching and learning mission. Perhaps most importantly, there are a limited number of leaders with the vision to make community schools a reality. Here are some ways to overcome these challenges.

An Intentional Strategy Focused on Results

A community school requires an intentional strategy among partners to support mutually agreed-upon results. A results focus enables the schools, parents, students, and their community partners to identify the services and supports that are most important in their particular setting. Results, and related measures, may be defined in many domains, for example, academic, personal, social, health, civic, and others. With an intentional focus on results, after-school programs, family support programs, and other programs can be more strategically linked with the curriculum. If, for example, a desired result is for all children to read at grade level by the end of third grade, then the next part of the conversation in a strategic planning process would be to consider what barriers hinder this goal, and what the partners can do to achieve the desired result. What roles would parents and families, early childhood programs, the school, after-school programs, the family support center, and business and civic groups play when it comes to third grade reading? What does best practice tell us they should do, individually and collectively? Thus, a conversation about results may become a strategy session, creating a touchstone for continuous assessment and improvement of the work that partners are doing together.

Thomas Gardner Extended Services School, Boston, MA

The Allston-Brighton neighborhood, home to Thomas Gardner Extended Services School (GESS), is among the most culturally and ethnically diverse in Boston. As many as 36 different languages are represented in the school's K–6 student body, and over half of its 500 students are learning English as a second language (ESL). Yet recent fourth-grade student performance on Massachusetts' state language arts test catapulted GESS into the top ten most improved schools in the state.

According to Principal Catalina Montes, the school's progress is tied closely to the efforts of an entire community, working in the school before, during, and after school hours. Ten years ago, when a Boston College (BC) faculty member visited Gardner as part of a research study, Montes made the professor promise to stay involved. "You can't leave," she said. "We need you." Eventually, a close partnership among Gardner, BC, the local YMCA (which serves the important role of fiscal agent), and the Healthy Boston Coalition developed into GESS. GESS is part of the Children's Aid Society commu-

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

nity schools adaptation network and receives support from the Wallace–Reader's Digest Fund.

BC graduate and undergraduate students as well as faculty work at the school daily. Certified teachers staff before-school breakfasts and after-school tutorial programs, with BC students working as mentors and tutors individually with GESS students. To make sure school day and after-school learning is connected, after-school teachers regularly visit the day program as classroom specialists. A Parent Center hosts weekly coffees and workshops on various topics such as immigration clinics staffed by BC law students. ESL and parenting skills classes, counseling, a full-time nurse, and weekly "power lunches" with volunteers from the business sector are among the services offered by GESS and its partners to keep the doors of opportunity open for students and families.

The project culminated in a series of "Black Bottom Sketches," written and performed by students and community members.

Build Community Partnerships

The community school approach argues that communities, not just educators, are responsible for the education of our children. If community responsibility is to become a reality, there must be a forum within the community by which leaders from different sectors (e.g., K–12 education, higher education, youth development, family support, health and social services, community development, government, business, religious, philanthropy) and leaders from among parents, neighborhood leaders, and youth come together to build and sustain a community school strategy. These partnerships must be "significant, sustained, and systematic" (Harkavy, 1998). At the community level, they should assume responsibility for articulating a vision of community schools, defining desired results, promoting accountability, mobilizing financing and resources, educating the public, building constituency for community schools, setting broad policy, facilitating professional development, and overseeing the long-range effectiveness and financial stability of the initiative (Melaville, 1998).

School Planning and Oversight Teams

School planning and oversight teams are key vehicles for ensuring that the voices of parents and students are heard at a community school. They

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

are the persons through which parents and students work with school staff and community partners to plan, organize, and evaluate the community schools, and find ways to sustain them. These teams carry out specific tasks similar to those of the community partnerships at the school level. Organizing and maintaining these teams takes a relentless commitment to the value of community participation in decision making, and an understanding of the importance of these teams to building a constituency for the community school and its long-term sustainability.

School Site Management

Any relationship between organizations requires attention to managing that relationship. Particularly important in a school environment where there are so many pressures on school personnel with regard to academic achievement is how to manage the relationship between the school and its community partners. Most school–community initiatives that were reviewed in *Learning Together* chose to have full-time coordinators. This strategy allowed the community school coordinator to become part of the fabric of the school, become a resource to the school principal, and understand the school culture and the needs and assets of the school, its students, families, and staff.

The concept of a community school coordinator is not new, having been pioneered by the community education movement. It also manifests itself in the work of the Missouri Caring Communities Program, the community school model of he Children's Aid Society in New York City, and in selected Communities in School sites where a coordinator manages all noninstructional supports. The most successful arrangements have the coordinator serving as part of the school's management team.

School districts, individual schools, and their community partners are coming together to find funding from various public and private sources as it becomes increasingly clear how essential effective management is for community schools. Sources of funding for management include schools, United Ways, philanthropy, local government, and private agencies. The possibilities are numerous with strong leadership and commitment.

Role of the Principal

Being a school principal is a daunting task under any circumstances. In a recent report, the Institute for Educational Leadership argued that principals must be able to exercise instructional, visionary, and community leadership to improve student learning (Institute for Educational Leader-

ship, 2000). Financing a full-time community school coordinator to take on noninstruction management responsibilities as part of the school management team is one way to deal with this challenge. In addition, principals need to know more about the capacity of family and community to support student learning. They generally receive little professional development in these areas. Parent involvement has only a small place in teacher education programs, where most principals begin their preparation. Moreover, conversations with people who manage principal leadership programs indicate that there is little in the curriculum about the roles of family and community in their administrator preparation programs, despite the fact that standards for leadership programs include these factors (Council of Chief State Schools Officers, 1996). Preparation and professional development programs for principals must give more attention to the principles of community development and collaborative leadership, and enhancing the capacity of the principals to work with families, the community, and other organizations concerned with children. Without the ability to foster such relationships, educators may inadvertently continue to take the public out of public schools. The principal preparation issue is a particularly important issue in light of the increasing attention devoted to leadership challenges in public education and how we prepare superintendents, principals, and other education leaders.

Strengthen Interprofessional Education

Breaking down the barriers between fields and disciplines requires that people learn more about each other during their professional preparation and during in-service professional development programs during their working lives. Progress has been made in this direction in some institutions of higher education, but far more must be done to change how professional preparation can more effectively help to support and sustain the community school approach.

Leadership

Leadership is a recognized key to most effective community school strategies. Melaville (1998) states that "Leadership provides fuel and direction. Initiatives that last are led by people who know where they want to go and have the position, personality, and power to make others want to come along." Bringing together diverse stakeholders behind a clear vision and strategy of community schools in the 21st century will require leadership from both our schools and our communities. More attention must be given

to nurturing those leaders who have already stepped forward and to finding and engaging potential leaders.

CONCLUSION

Ben Canada, superintendent in Portland, Oregon, and a past president of the American Association of School Administrators, is active in the Schools United Neighborhoods community schools initiative in Portland. He makes the case for why a community school approach makes sense for schools and communities: "The tendency in public education is to think that because a district has money it can go it alone or contract out . . . but for me it's more than entering into a partnership. It's the philosophy behind the partnership—a philosophy about engaging the whole community in the process of making all of us better citizens. . . . When other organizations work closely with schools, people learn and have greater appreciation for what we do. . . . They buy into what we're trying to accomplish. And I don't think any school district should deny itself the opportunity for those kinds of long-term benefits" (Pardini, 2001).

In all the policy debates about education reform, family and community are secondary, if they are discussed at all, though most people know that in fact they make a crucial difference in the education of our children. The community school approach provides a way for educators and community leaders to think together about how schools and communities can strengthen their ties, and in the process strengthen the most critical institution in our society—the public school.

NOTES

1. For further information on the community education movement, see the website of the National Community Education Association at http://www.ncea.com. Communities in Schools was previously known as Cities in Schools. The website is http://www.cisnet.org.
2. The 20 initiatives included the following organizations: Alliance Schools; Beacon Schools; Bridges to Success; Caring Communities; Children's Aid Society Schools; Communities in Schools Community Education Programs in Birmingham, AL, St. Louis, MO, and St. Louis Park, MN; COZI; Family Resources and Youth Services Centers (KY); Family Resource Schools (Denver, CO); Full Service Schools (Jacksonville, FL); New Beginnings (San Diego, CA); New Jersey School-Based Youth Services Program; New Visions for Public Schools (New York); Pacoima Urban Village (Pacoima, CA); Readiness to Learning Initiative (WA); WEPIC (Philadelphia).
3. Pending changes to the Elementary and Secondary Act, of which CCLC is a part, would allow community-based organizations to be direct recipients of

grant funds, if they have formal partnership with schools. The CBO community has promoted this provision to demonstrate that CBOs should be able to be full partners with schools in providing after-school development opportunities to children and youth.

REFERENCES

Addams, J. (1994). *On education.* New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publications.

Administration for Children and Families. (1996). *The Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996* (P.L. 104-193). Available: http://www.acf.dhhs.gov/programs/opa/facts/prwora96.htm

Afterschool Alliance. (2000). *After school: Alert poll no. 13* [Online]. Available: http://www.afterschoolalliance.org/June2000_Poll_Rpt_FINAL.pdf

Brandeis University. (1999). *Research and evaluation: National evaluation of learn and serve* [Online]. Available: http://www.learnandserve.org/research/nelsa.html

California Department of Education. (1999). *Healthy start works—evaluation report: A statewide profile of healthy start sites* [Online]. Available: http://www.cde.ca.gov/healthystart/evalworks.htm

California Department of Education. (2001). *Family–school compacts: Effective tools for promoting family–school partnerships* [Online]. Available: http://www.cde.ca.gov/fc/family/compacts.html

Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development. (1989). *Turning points: Preparing American youth for the 21st century. Report of the Carnegie Task Force on the Education of Young Adolescents.* New York: Author.

Center for Disease Control. (2001). *School health programs: An investment in our nation's future* [Online]. Available: http://www.cdc.gov/nccdphp/dash/ataglanc2001.htm

Clark, R. M. (1988). *Critical factors in why disadvantaged children succeed or fail in school.* New York: Academy for Educational Development.

Coalition for Community Schools. (2001). *Analysis of outcomes of youth development organizations.* Unpublished manuscript.

Corporation for National and Community Service. (n.d.). *About us: History of national service* [Online]. Available: http://www.nationalservice.org/about/history.html

Council of Chief State Schools Officers. (1996). *The interstate school leadership licensure consortium standards for school leaders.* Washington, DC: Author.

Davies, D. (1988). Low income parents and the schools: A research report and a plan for action. *Equity and Choice 4*(3), 51–57.

Dewey, J. (1966). *Democracy and education: An introduction to the philosophy of education.* New York: Free Press. (Original work published 1916)

Dryfoos, J. (1994). *Full service schools.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dryfoos, J. G. (2000). *Evaluation of community schools: Findings to date* [Online]. Available: http://www.communityschools.org/evaluation/evalprint.html

Epstein, J. L. (1991). Effects on student achievement of teacher practices of parent involvement. In S. Silvern (Ed.), *Advances in reading/language research: Literacy through family, community, and school interaction.* Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Epstein, J. L. (1992). School and family partnerships. In M. Alkin (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of educational research.* New York: MacMillan.

Fisher, S. (Ed.). (1998) *Reasons for hope, voices for change: A report of the Annenberg Institute on Public Engagement for Public Education.* Providence, RI: Brown University.

Forum for Youth Investment. (2001, August). *Inputs for learning environments: Constistencies across the education and youth development fields.* (Available from the Forum for Youth Investment, 7014 Westmoreland Avenue, Takoma Park, MD 20912.)

Giegengack, R., Cressler, W., Piesieski, J., & Bloch, P. (in press). An educational strategy to reduce exposure of urban children to environmental lead. In H. Ward (Ed.), *Service learning in the disciplines: Environmental studies.* PA: American Association of Higher Education.

Harkavy, I. (1998). *Governance and the connection between community, higher education and schools* [Online]. Available: http://www.highereducation.org/reports/g_momentum/gmomentum9.shtml

Henderson, A. (1994). *A new generation of evidence: The family is crucial to student achievement.* Washington, DC: National Committee for Citizens in Education.

Institute for Educational Leadership. (2000). *Leadership for student learning: Reinventing the principalship. School leadership for the 21st century initiative* [Report]. Washington, DC: Author.

Jehl, J., Blank, M. J., & McCloud, B. (2001). *Education and community building: Connecting two worlds* [Online]. Available: http://www.communityschools.org/combuild.pdf)

Jurich, S., & Estes, S. (2000). *Raising academic achievement for America's youth: A study of 20 successful programs* [Online]. Available: http://www.aypf.org/RAA/index.htm

Kann, L., Collins, J. L., Pateman, B. C., Small, M. L., Russ, J. G., & Kolbe, L. J. (n.d.). The school health policies and program study (SHPPS): Rationale for a nationwide status report on school health program. *Journal of School Health, 65*(8), 291–293.

Learning First Alliance. (2001). *Every child learning: Safe and supportive schools* [Online]. Available: http://www.learningfirst.org/pdfs/safe-schools-summary.pdf

Leler, H. (1983). Parent education and involvement in relation to the schools and to parents of school-aged children. In R. Haskins & D. Adams (Eds.), *Parent education and public policy.* Norwood, JN: Ablex.

Lieberman, G. A., & Hoody, L. L. (1998). *Closing the achievement gap: Using the environment as an integrating context for learning.* Poway, CA: State Education and Environment Roundtable.

Melaville, A. (1998). *Learning together: The developing field of school–community initiatives.* Flint, MI: Charles Stewart Mott Foundation.

Mott Foundation. (n.d.). Home page. Available: http://www.mott.org/programs/programs.asp

Newman, S. A., Fox, J. A., Flynn, E. A., & Christeson, W. (2000). *America's after-school choice: The prime time for juvenile crime or youth enrichment and achievement* [Online]. Available: http://www.fightcrime.org/index.php

Pardini, P. (2001). School–community partnering. *The School Administrator* [Online]. Available: http://www.aasa.org/publications/sa/2001_08/pardini1.htm

Pittman, K. J., & Wright, M. (1991). *Bridging the gap: A rationale for enhancing the role of community organizations in promoting youth development* [Report]. (Available from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, 437 Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10022.)

Public Agenda. (2001). *Just waiting to be asked? A fresh look at attitudes on public engagement* [Online]. Available: http://www.publicagenda.org/specials/pubengage/pubengage.htm

Reynolds, A. J., Temple, J. A. Robertson, D. L., & Mann, E. A. (2001). Long-term effects of an early childhood intervention on educational achievement and juvenile arrest: A 15-year follow-up of low-income children in public schools. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 285*(18), 2339–2346.

Roper Starch Worldwide, Inc. (2000). *Public attitudes toward education and service-learning* [Online]. Available: http://www.learningindeed.org/tools/other/roper.pdf

Secretary of Health and Human Services & Secretary of Education. (2000). *Promoting better health for young people through physical activity and sports* [Online]. Available: http://www.cdc.gov/nccdphp/dash/presphysactrpt/

Small, M. L., Maher, L. S., Allensworth, D. D., Farquhar, B. K., Kann, L., & Pateman, B. C. (n.d.). School health services. *Journal of School Health, 65*(8), 319–325.

Symons, C. W. (1997). Bridging student health risks and academic achievement through comprehensive school health programs. *Journal of School Health, 67*(6), 224.

Tierney, J., Grossman, J. B., & Resch, N. L. (1995). *Making a difference: An impact study of the Big Brothers Big Sisters.* Philadelphia: Public/Private Ventures.

U.S. Department of Education. (1998). *Safe and smart: Making the after-school hours work for kids* [Online]. Available: http://www.ed.gov/pubs/SafeandSmart/

Vandell, D., & Posner, J. (1999). After-school activities and the development of low-income urban children: A longitudinal study. *Developmental Psychology, 35*(3), 868–879.

CHAPTER 3

A FULL-SERVICE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

Joy G. Dryfoos

Over the past decade, schools and communities have come together all over the country to form an array of partnerships (Jordon, Orozco, & Averett, 2002). Some of these new arrangements radically transform the structure and governance of the school. When a community agency establishes a peer relationship with a school system by taking on the responsibility for some of the workings of the school, we call the product a *full-service community school.* In this chapter, I summarize community school concepts and then describe one school that has successfully used these concepts to transform itself from a place where children once failed to a place where children succeed. Lessons learned from this experience are extrapolated and applied to the emerging field of full-service community schools.

FULL-SERVICE COMMUNITY SCHOOL CONCEPTS

Full-service community schools began to emerge within the previous decade in response to the overwhelming difficulties that schools were encountering in coping with the social and economic problems of children and families in disadvantaged communities. The K–3 and middle school described by Hiatt-Michael in her introduction to the monograph are examples.

Promising Practices to Connect Schools With the Community, pages 35–45
Copyright © 2002 by Information Age Publishing
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.

This chapter utilizes the definition of a community school based on concepts supported by the Coalition for Community Schools (2002a). A community school, operating in a public school building, is open to students, families, and the community before, during, and after school, seven days a week, all year long. It is jointly operated through a partnership between the school system and one or more community agencies. Families, youth, principals, teachers, and neighborhood residents help design and implement activities that promote high educational achievement and positive youth development.The school is oriented toward the community, encouraging student learning through community service and service learning. A before- and after-school learning component encourages students to build on their classroom experiences, expand their horizons, contribute to their communities, and have fun. A family support center helps families with child-rearing, employment, housing, immigration, and other issues and problems. Medical, dental, and mental health services are readily available. College faculty and students, businesspeople, youth workers, neighbors, and family members come together to support and bolster what schools are working hard to accomplish, that is, ensuring young people's academic, interpersonal, and career success. Ideally, a full-time community school coordinator works in partnership with the principal. The coordinator is a member of the school's management team and is responsible for administering the services brought into the school by community agencies. Over time, most community schools consciously try to integrate activities in several areas to achieve the desired results: quality education, positive youth development, family support, family and community engagement in decision making, and community development. In this process, the school emerges as a community hub, a one-stop center to meet diverse needs and to achieve the best possible outcomes for each child.

Many different models have been promulgated that encompass some or all of these concepts. The Children's Aid Society (CAS) in New York City has designed and supported "a settlement house in a school," working closely with local community school boards to bring into the school buildings programs for physical health, mental health, social services, family, after-school and weekend activities, and other suitable programs. Community school staff work hard to integrate extended day programs with schoolwork and to involve parents in their children's educational experience. In this model, the community-based organization (CBO) operates the initiative and is identified as the *lead agency.*

Another approach, university-assisted community schools, involves university professors and students in direct relationships with school teachers and administrators in devising educational interventions such as new curricula for the classroom, enrichment experiences, and service in the community (Walsh et al., 2000). University students help the teachers

implement the classroom work, and they spend time with the students at all hours of the day and night in creative projects in the school and the community.

United Way's Bridges to Success is oriented toward encouraging United Way's constituent community agencies to move into school spaces. A city-wide representative council oversees the program and places coordinators in schools to make sure that the services are integrated. Beacons, initially in New York and now a national model, gives CBO's funds to "light up" the schoolhouses and keep them open for an array of youth development activities during extended hours. Communities-in-Schools creates local councils that raise funds to relocate social workers and other youth workers into schools to work on case management and other issues.

Perhaps the least documented model of full-service community schools is the "principal initiated." The principal invites partners into the school to extend the day and provide what are perceived in that school as essential child and family services and enrichment programs. The Molly Stark Community School is one such site. Sue Maguire, the principal, established relationships with 40 different community partners in order to keep her school open all the time and address the human factors that could not be fulfilled by the school system. These partners supported early morning childcare, immunizations, and dentistry, among other services (Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002).

QUITMAN STREET COMMUNITY SCHOOL

Newark, New Jersey, had one of the most troubled school districts in the country. After years of unsuccessful attempts to reform the schools, the State Department of Education took over the school system in 1995, abolishing the board of education and hiring the superintendent. Newark is one of 30 disadvantaged districts in New Jersey that is a recipient of additional state educational funds mandated by the historic *Abbott* decision of the State Supreme Court in 1997. Under this mandate, each school is required to select a school reform model and can implement preschool, health and social services, after-school, and educational enrichment programs.

The Quitman Street Community School sits in the heart of Newark's most disadvantaged Central Ward (Dryfoos, 2002). Despite all the problems in the school system and the neighborhood, this school, through the collaborative efforts of many people and organizations, has been able to transform itself from a troubled place to a well-functioning full-service community school. The Prudential Foundation initiated the process in 1997, introducing the Children's Aid Society model to the school's principal and district school authorities. It generated the funds to support a lead

agency, the Community Agencies Corporation of New Jersey (CACNJ), which is a strong community-based organization with ties to the neighborhood. This agency is responsible for the extended day program as well as a range of parent involvement programs. Prudential also helps support a school-based clinic, operated by the Children's Hospital of New Jersey at Newark Beth Israel Medical Center and an early child development program, offered by the Bank Street College of Education. Many other arts, literacy, and mentoring programs, provided by community agencies, have been integrated into the community school. Quitman and CACNJ staff worked together to select the Comer School Development Model as their reform effort.

Components of Quitman Community School

The doors of this school are open every weekday from 7:30 A.M. to 9:00 P.M., often on weekends for special events, and over the summer holidays.

Extended day. From 3:00 P.M. to 6:00 P.M., Quitman offers a well-planned after-school program including homework help, academic enrichment, and extensive youth development activities. This effort, coordinated by CACNJ, is staffed by teachers and by Group Leaders who are either parents or community members hired to assist with recreation, sports, and arts. The Group Leaders are trained in youth development by the Bank Street staff. The school is also open in the summer for a program that focuses on academic enrichment in the mornings staffed by teachers and that focuses on recreation in the afternoon staffed by CACNJ. Although about half of the students participate in extended day, everyone in the school has access to field trips and special events throughout the year. From 6:00 P.M. to 9:00 P.M., sports and adult education programs are supported and staffed by the Newark school system.

School-based primary health clinic. A suite of rooms has been made available to the clinic staff which includes a full-time nurse practitioner, aide, social worker, and a part-time dentist, pediatrician, and psychiatric consultant. Children flock into the clinic where they and their siblings can get physical examinations, treatments for such prevalent problems as asthma and intestinal diseases, medications, follow-up care, and referral for more complicated problems. The largest demand is for mental health counseling provided individually and in groups by a social worker who grew up in this community.

Parent involvement. The most significant observable change in this school has been the enormous increase in the number of parents in the school and the quality of their involvement. Many parents come to the school daily to volunteer or do paid work as classroom and cafeteria aides. The

attractive community school room is always full of parents enjoying a morning coffee klatch, using the computers, or getting direct assistance from the CACNJ staff. An array of courses is available during the day and early evenings, such as GED preparation, computers, and aerobics. When asked what was so special about Quitman, one very involved parent responded with a list of eight components: (1) the extended day ensures that homework gets done; (2) "all these little entities" (the collaborating partners) help bring out hidden talents by exposing children to art, dance, music productions, and cultural enrichment; (3) health services are provided along with access to knowledge of human growth and development; (4) all the programs work together; (5) access to computers and GED preparation is provided; (6) the community school room provides a place for parents to hang out; (7) free trips are offered; and (8) the whole school is involved (D. Crawford, personal communication, October 2001). Several parents have initiated efforts to organize an effective PTA after a long period without one.

Community work. One of the significant needs in this school was to repair the decaying playground. With support from the Prudential Foundation, a project was initiated by the Trust for Public Land that involved the students in the design and construction of an innovative and attractive new play area. Parents have begun to organize to clean up bordering streets of trash and drug paraphernalia. Parents have also begun to advocate for better housing and public transportation in the neighborhood.

Exposure to the larger world. The community school staff arranges many field trips for Quitman students. They go to museums, baseball games, nature preserves, and amusement parks, places that were previously unavailable to these children because of their disadvantaged status. Parents accompany them and are able to gain new experiences along with their children. Special events are frequently held at the school to celebrate holidays, put on musical productions, or provide meals for families.

Improved outcomes. The Quitman program has used indicators and benchmarks to guide its development. Based on data from surveys of parents and teachers, these activities and changes in the school have had numerous effects on the children, families, school staff, and community. These effects may be summarized as the following:

1. Student academic achievement has improved, evidenced by (a) significant progress in reading scores school-wide, (b) strong reports of more positive attitudes toward learning and achievement, and (c) parents of children in extended day have commented on improved grades with more homework finished.

2. Student social and emotional wellness and growth has increased. Teachers and parents both observed improvements in behavior. Students got along better with each other and were more independent.
3. Staff development is greater than before. CACNJ staff participated in staff retreats for teachers, in all faculty meetings, in the school management team, and in other school development activities. After-school group leaders participated in over 50 hours of staff development and training. CACNJ staff took part in conferences and workshops in the community school field. The CACNJ site director and Bank Street staff attended one-week training in the Comer model.
4. Governance has functioned more smoothly. CACNJ participated on a School Management Team, working closely with the principal, administrators, and faculty on implementing the Comer model. CACNJ took responsibility for organizing and convening monthly meetings for core partners.

Lessons Learned from Quitman

These observations of the Quitman School are quite consistent with observations made elsewhere and descriptions found in the literature (Collaborative for Integrated School Services, 2002; Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 2001). I believe that the key elements in building a successful full-service community school are (1) committed people, (2) open communication, (3) careful planning, (4) access to technical assistance, (5) integration of educational and support components, and (6) strong initial financial support.

Committed people. We often hear stories about how great a difference one individual can make, the proverbial charismatic leader. The Quitman experience goes beyond that concept because the developments reflect the joint leadership of several key leaders, working closely together and sharing a vision. The Prudential Foundation staff started the whole project and remained committed throughout initial difficulties, those inherent in new projects. The first lead agency did not work out at all; although the agency was neighborhood-based, the staff lacked the skills to organize the program. The current lead agency, CACNJ, which was selected from among five applicants, was a much better choice. Not only was its top management involved from the beginning, CACNJ recruited an excellent staff, most notably a community school coordinator who was determined to bring all the necessary pieces together under the school roof. She, in turn, recruited and trained a high quality assistant who was able to take on the coordinator job when the first coordinator moved out of the community.

A community school cannot succeed without the blessing of the school principal. In this case, two principals were involved, one at the beginning who had the vision, and the second who shortly thereafter picked up the program and worked closely with the community school staff to implement it. His support helped turn the whole school staff around so that over time the teachers and others could appreciate the benefits of the community school components.

Access to technical assistance. The Prudential Foundation first learned about community schools from an assistant superintendent of schools in Newark who much admired the Children's Aid Society (CAS) model. The foundation contracted with CAS to provide technical assistance to the emerging community school. When the first lead agency failed to carry out the mission, CAS staff moved in and conducted the needs assessment from which plans could be made. CAS also organized the first summer program at Quitman. After CACNJ arrived on the scene, CAS became a consultant and advised the coordinator frequently. Visits to CAS's New York City sites helped Quitman and community school staff to understand the model and implement it correctly. All of the emerging models listed above have intermediary organizations that provide technical assistance. Contact can be facilitated through the Coalition for Community Schools (M. J. Blank, personal communication, 2002).

Careful planning. A thorough needs assessment is necessary to collect data to determine what services are needed in a school community (Calfee, Wittwer, & Meredith, 1998). The process of conducting such an assessment is vitally important because it often marks the beginning of the collaboration. All the stakeholders share access to the data and have to form a consensus on how to rigorously go about building the infrastructure of a community school. The components that are eventually put together have to be responsive to the identified needs.

Communication, communication, communication. This experience is all about open communication. Picture the various teams at work at Quitman: the principal, the teachers and other school staff, the community school staff, the parent participants, the health clinic personnel, the Bank Street group, and alongside all of that, the Comer School Development committees. In order for this model to work, each of these units needed to know what the other units were doing. At Quitman, the principal set the tone with what was described as an "open door." Anyone could have access to him whenever necessary. The community school coordinator made sure to go through that open door frequently to keep the principal fully informed of all the many activities going on in his school and the neighborhood.

All of these groups are represented on joint committees, including a School Management Team. The vice-principal and the clinic nurse practitioner together chair the school-wide Child Well-Being Committee. This

group brings together all stakeholders in the community school to work on critical changes in the school climate. For example, a security guard was observed being too demanding on students, making them stand at attention in the hall for committing minor infractions. Representatives from the Committee approached the guard and worked with him to establish more effective (and gentler) procedures for dealing with children. The vice-principal believes that the atmosphere has changed as a result of the community school efforts, and commented, "No one closes doors. The children are nicer and everyone shares responsibility."

Integration of components. The theory of community schools is that combining quality educational experiences with adequate support services will help children overcome barriers to achievement. Just adding on clinics and family resource centers or extending school hours without integrating those components may not be enough to make much difference in academic outcomes. The preferred community school practice is to make sure that what gets added on or brought in by outside agencies is carefully integrated with what is already in place. Thus, as at Quitman, the content of the after-school program is built on to the classroom material to reinforce what is learned during the school day. The health program is also extended into the classroom through health education that can be provided by clinic personnel.

Strong and sustained funding. The Prudential Foundation certainly played a major role in this history, contributing more than $2 million over a five-year period. Its consistent support for this program has enabled the Quitman Community School to carefully develop each one of its components. The Coalition for Community Schools suggests that $250,000 is needed for core support services at a community school site. That is within the range that CACNJ currently requires for the extended day program; additional funds are needed for the clinic and the summer program. CAS estimates that a quality community school program will cost about $1,000 per student per year (Coalition for Community Schools, 2002b).

APPLICATION TO THE EMERGING FIELD OF FULL-SERVICE COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

Advocates for full-service community schools would like to see more schools transform themselves based on these concepts. Leaders of the Coalition for Community Schools point out that while examples of success exist in virtually every state (Dryfoos, 2000), community schools still serve only a minuscule fraction of the 47 million schoolchildren and only a small percentage of the nation's 15,000 school districts (Harkavy & Blank, in press). A number of challenges stand in the way of broad replication: (1)

claiming visibility as a school reform model, (2) identifying the mechanism for creating school and community partnerships, (3) gaining access to the categorical resources that can be used for comprehensive programs, (4) convincing professionals to cross domains, and (5) to effect policies and regulations that support community school concepts. To accomplish these challenges will take concerted action on every level.

Local level. Almost every example of a fully realized community school was initiated at the school-house level. A community group approached a school with the idea or a principal invited in some outsiders to help deal with school problems. Many community schools were started as a result of requests for proposals from foundations or public funding programs. An initiative such as the 21st Century Community Learning Centers' billion dollar after-school program opened school-house doors after hours all over the country. Because partnerships were required, this started schools and community groups thinking about ways that they could collaborate (Department of Education, 2002). Placing primary health clinics and family resource centers in school buildings provided essential building blocks for further development.

One important step in gaining recognition for community schools is to educate school administrators about the possibilities. Principals, superintendents, and local school boards need to be exposed to these ideas and need to be convinced that the school-house can become a neighborhood hub without losing its primary function as the center for educational enrichment. Local school people should interact with local community agencies so that each domain can be exposed to the benefits of working together.

Another important step is to recruit community school coordinator personnel from local agencies or school systems. It is not possible to operate a full-service school without the presence of a full-time administrator to pull the pieces together and work with the principal to ensure integration.

State level. Communities in states that support full-service community school initiatives are, of course, in an advantageous position. For example, Missouri initiated the Caring Communities program that funds community collaboratives to provide services in schools across the state. California's Healthy Start brings a wide array of support services into school sites following careful planning with other agencies. Specifically, states can align programs across agency lines and connect existing taskforces and advisory groups to support a unified vision of integrated education and support services. States can require that new school buildings create the spaces to accommodate the needs of community schools, such as rooms for clinics and family resource centers and lights and air-conditioning for after-school and summer programs. Technical assistance in local planning and program development can be made available through state resources.

National level. Dedicated public and private leadership is necessary to create the necessary movement to put full-service community schools on the map. Government agencies can regulate categorical funding streams to make sure that they are flexible and can be used in collaborative programs. Nonprofit agencies can promote policies that lead toward integrated service systems. Universities can rethink their graduate programs to cross domains, particularly education, community psychology, health, and social welfare. Foundations and government agencies should support research, particularly on the conditions that support the successful development of partnerships (Jordan et al., 2002).

CONCLUSION

We can learn many things from the Quitman Community School about how to proceed. Funds have to be available at the outset to plan and set up the infrastructure that brings community agencies into the schools as full partners. Technical assistance from experienced practitioners can move the process along and help avoid the turf battles that may ensue. A new field is emerging. Its ultimate success will depend on whether or not enough committed people can be found who want to dedicate their lives to helping disadvantaged children and their families overcome the barriers to learning.

REFERENCES

Calfee, C., Wittwer, F., & Meredith, M. (1998). *Building a full-service school: A step-by-step guide.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Coalition for Community Schools. (2002a). *Community schools: Partnerships for Excellence* [Online]. Available: www.communityschools.org

Coalition for Community Schools. (2002b). *Linkages to learning* [Online]. Available: www.communityschools.org

Collaborative for Integrated School Services. (2002). *Building strong full service and community schools: Leadership and collaboration* (Report on the Conference on Full Service Schools, March 2001). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Graduate School of Education.

Department of Education (2002). *21st Century Community Learning Centers* [Online]. Available: www.ed.gov/21stcclc

Dryfoos, J. (2000). *Evaluation of community schools: An early look* [Online]. Available: www.communityschools.com and http://edrs.com

Dryfoos, J. (2002). *Quitman community school: Rallying around the whole village, saving the whole child* (Report to Prudential Foundation). Newark, NJ: Author.

Dryfoos, J., & Maguire, S. (2002). *Inside full-service community schools.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Harkavy, I., & Blank, M. (in press). *Community schools: Educating all of our children: Beyond testing to implementing other dimensions of the No Child Left Behind Act.*

Jordan, C., Orozco, E., & Averett, A. (2002). *Emerging issues in school, family & community connections.* Austin, TX: National Center for Family and Community Connections with Schools, Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. (2001). *School-linked services: Avenues to achieving quality education for all.* Austin, TX: Author.

Walsh, M., Brabeck, M., Howard, K., Sherman, F., Montes, C., & Garvin, T. (2000). The Boston College–Alston/Brighton partnership: Description and challenges. *Peabody Journal of Education Issue on University–School Collaboration, 75*(3).

CHAPTER 4

SCHOOL-LINKED SERVICE PROGRAMS

Opportunities and Challenges

Nancy Feyl Chavkin

We can substantially improve the odds that they [children] will become healthy, sturdy, and productive adults, participants in a twenty-first century America whose aspirations they will share. The cycle of disadvantage that has seemed so intractable can be broken.

A critical mass of research and experience, both about what works and what doesn't work, is now available, with answers to the problems that have recently risen to the top of the American domestic agenda.

Lizbeth B. Schorr (1988, p. 291)

In the early 1990s, governors across the nation presented proposals for linking health and human services with schools. At the time, this seemed like a revolutionary, new idea, but actually school-linked service programs have been around for a long time. The names of these initiatives have changed over the years, and their popularity has ebbed and flowed with the political currents of the time. In 1997, Wang, Haertel, and Walberg

Promising Practices to Connect Schools With the Community, pages 47–70
Copyright © 2002 by Information Age Publishing
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.

wrote in *What We Know about Coordinated School-Linked Services* that coordinated school-linked services have promoted systemic educational reform more completely than any other tool. This chapter helps teachers and school personnel understand what school-linked service programs are and what opportunities and challenges school-linked service programs present.

WHAT ARE SCHOOL-LINKED SERVICE PROGRAMS?

School-linked service programs are health and social services that are delivered by collaborative arrangements between schools and communities. Educators often refer to them by many other terms including partnerships, school-based services, coalitions, collaborations, and service integration projects. The term school-linked services can represent many different kinds of programs, but it is important to make some distinctions not often made in the existing literature.

Much of the literature on school-linked service programs is not in academic journals or textbooks yet; the literature consists primarily of reports from national organizations such as the Council of Governors' Policy Advisors, National Center for Service Integration, and the Center for the Study of Social Policy (see Chynoweth & Dyer, 1991; Schorr, Farrow, Hornbeck, & Watson, 1995; Young et al., 1994). This literature is imprecise about the definition of what school-linked service projects are, and descriptions of school-linked service programs are often embedded in an elusive set of literature that carries a variety of titles such as collaborative services, family involvement, partnerships, school-linked services, comprehensive programs, and integrated delivery systems. Many of the writings are advocacy-based such as Schorr's 1988 *Within Our Reach: Breaking the Cycle of Disadvantage* or how-to manuals such as Melaville and Blank's 1993 *Together We Can: A Guide to Crafting Community-based, Family-Centered Strategies for Integrating Education and Human Services.*

Franklin and Streeter (1995) make the point that these different words actually describe different levels of commitment. Their conceptualization is a five-part continuum: (1) informal relations, (2) coordination, (3) partnership, (4) collaboration, and (5) integration (See Figure 4.1). At the informal relations level, participants on both sides have little or no change in the basic philosophy of their systems, while at the partnership level, there are some major shifts in philosophy and a formal commitment to the program, and at the integration level, participants move to systemic change in how all the participants operate and all participants have a common vision. No change in existing structure is necessary at the informal relations level, but at the partnership level, there is some reorganization, and

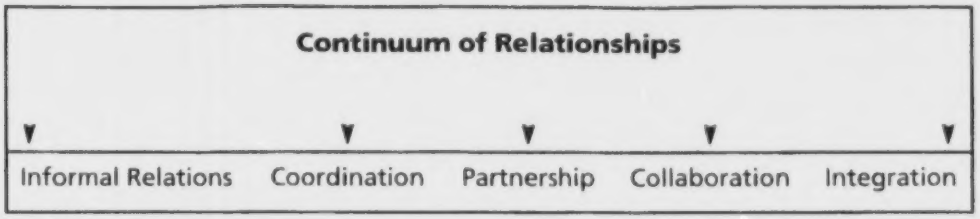


Figure 4.1. Franklin & Streeter Continuum (adapted from Franklin & Streeter, 1995).

at the integration level, there is total reform of both structure and process to produce the desired changes.

For this chapter, we will define school-based service projects according to Franklin and Streeter's (1995) definition of partnership, that is, when schools, families, and communities have agreed to work together with a formal partnership plan to develop initiatives that will improve education. To be defined as a school-linked service program, the agreement between schools and community agencies must be at least in the middle of Franklin and Streeter's continuum, that is, at the partnership level. Some school-linked service programs have already moved toward more collaborative or integrative efforts, and many have long-term visions of developing into integrated systems.

WHEN DID SCHOOL-LINKED SERVICE PROGRAMS BEGIN?

In 1902, Jacob Riis published his classic "call to action" book, *How the Other Half Lives*, and in 1905 Robert Hunter exposed the suffering of children with his book *Poverty*. The Progressive Era at the turn of the century began to respond to these dire reports about the future of the next generation by proposing reforms of the educational system. Tyack (1992) describes the call for school lunches, medical clinics, classes for handicapped children, and vocational counseling. School social work was born in this era as a possible solution to the need to reform the educational system.

This period was a period of rapid growth for both education and social work. Both were highly influenced by the progressive views that human suffering was neither the fault nor the destiny of the individual and that much of the suffering could be prevented through education. Progressive education began as an effort to improve the lives of individuals, and reformers saw children, in particular, as the key to the solution of the problems of urban life. Societal needs were apparent, and school social work emerged as part of this new perspective on poverty and child development.

The school was a tool for acculturation because it reached the majority of children and might ensure the nurturing of a respectable future generation. The school aided immigration by providing services and preparing children for Americanization by exposing them to a common education (Lubove, 1973). The schools were often used as general community centers for all ages.

Compulsory attendance laws decreased the number of children working long hours in factories, but these laws did not solve all the problems. Truant officers could only return children to school; they could do nothing about the causes of nonattendance (Abbott & Breckinridge, 1917). Along with compulsory attendance came the problem of how to deal with the many different kinds of children who were now required to attend school. School social workers and general mental health workers increased in the schools, and during the period of the New Deal, free school lunches became a common service.

By the 1960s, the war on poverty focused on students who were not benefiting from their academic studies, and there was an increased emphasis on serving the whole family. Edelman and Radin (1992) describe two important developments during this era: (1) a change in the definition of who was entitled to receive these services and (2) a renewed look at the nature of the service delivery system. The federal government became the primary funding source for social service programs serving the needs of low-income and ethnic minority families.

Tyack (1992) describes the 1970s as a time that brought increasing concerns about academic excellence and international competitiveness and the schools again found themselves providing extensive support services to children and their families. Major legislation in the 1980s focused on the needs of students who were at-risk for dropping out of school. By the 1990s, almost every state had implemented some initiative to link schools with social service agencies and the term "school-linked services" was born.

WHY DO WE NEED SCHOOL-LINKED SERVICE PROGRAMS?

Issues that affect the lives of children have a strong impact on how effective a teacher can be. How many times have you heard or even said to yourself the following statements? "I can't teach them if they're hungry", "They are too tired to focus on schoolwork", "How can we expect him to do a math worksheet when his mother just got arrested?" The grim statistics on teenage pregnancy, drug and alcohol abuse, dropouts, and violent behavior are familiar to all. There is no doubt that students are coming to school with major health and social problems. Indeed, the schools do have a major

interest in having children who come to school ready and able to learn, and they need to play a significant role in the development of school-linked service programs.

The next question is usually, "But why do we have to provide the services at school? We have too much to do already." The answer to this question is again quite simple. The school is where the children are. The American Federation of Teachers (1991) states that because most children attend public school, it is the logical place to develop coordinated service delivery systems. The Texas Education Agency (1993), the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (1990), and the Center for Future of Children (1992) expand on this rationale by emphasizing the following benefits of locating services at schools:

- Schools are familiar places in communities
- Schools are accessible
- Schools are permanent parts of communities
- Going to a school carries less stigma than going to a mental health clinic
- School personnel interact daily with students and parents
- Schools are seen as places to improve and get ahead

The school is the only universal place of our nation's children experience. Freeman and Pennekamp (1988) explain that mandatory education defines the student's role as being both involuntary and entitled to receiving an appropriate education. They see the school as the logical starting place to coordinate comprehensive community services that can help fulfill the commitment to provide for the needs of students.

WHAT DO PROMISING PROGRAMS LOOK LIKE?

Although no two programs are alike, promising school-linked service programs have several features in common. Hare (1995) describes three major goals that are included in most successful programs:

- Improving efficiency by reducing duplication
- Focusing on inclusion of children and families rather than exclusion because of rigid categorical funding
- Improving quality and effectiveness by providing comprehensive services

These successful programs typically have a clearly identified vision, a mutually agreed-upon set of goals, shared responsibilities, and shared budgetary responsibility.

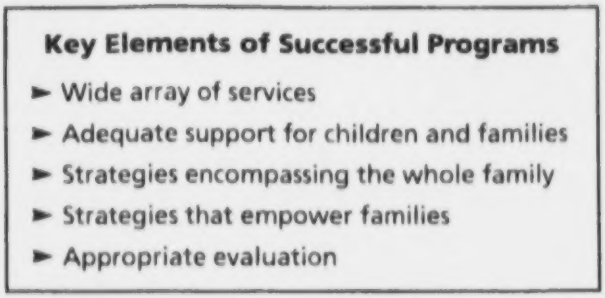

Key Elements of Successful Programs
► Wide array of services
► Adequate support for children and families
► Strategies encompassing the whole family
► Strategies that empower families
► Appropriate evaluation

Figure 4.2. Key elements of successful programs. (National School Boards Association, 1991)

The National School Boards Association (1991) describes key elements of successful programs as: (a) a wide array of services, (b) adequate support for children and families, (c) strategies that encompass the whole family, (d) strategies that empower families, and (e) appropriate evaluation techniques (Figure 4.2).

The Center for the Future of Children (Larson et. al, 1992) adds to the list of needed elements by including: (a) a flexible delivery system, (b) a strong collaborative effort, (c) a comprehensive program tailored to the needs of children and families, (d) redirection of some current funding by all partners to support the partnership, (e) involvement and support of the whole family, (f) willingness to collect data about effects and costs, and (g) responsiveness to diversity.

Melaville and Blank (1993) summarize eight characteristics of effective initiatives to change service delivery systems in *Together We Can: A Guide for Crafting a Pro-Family System of Education and Human Services.* They found that effective initiatives have the following characteristics:

1. School-linked. Programs that work are most often connected to a school community that values their children and families. These schools place the needs of children and their families first on their priority list.
2. Rooted in the community and closely connected to state government. Successful programs have strong backing from both local and state government. This support includes policies that facilitate communication and resources.
3. Use place-specific service delivery prototypes to create systems change. Effective programs create prototypes that model what ideal delivery systems would look like. These prototypes target high-risk children and families and help programs identify successful features and work to change policies so that other programs can also be successful.

4. Data-driven. Programs that work start collecting data before they begin and continue throughout the program. They use their baseline indicators as a comparison to find out how the program is working or not working.
5. Financially pragmatic. Effective programs use their resources wisely. Instead of always looking for new money, they evaluate how they are using existing dollars and find new ways of redirecting and maximizing current dollars by building on existing resources.
6. Use new forms of interprofessional preservice and inservice education, training, and leadership development. Successful initiatives abandon narrowly defined titles and turf areas for professional training and leadership development. Their focus is on the needs of children and families, and they emphasize interprofessional training.
7. Use the collaborative's influence to engage all citizens in decisions about the social and economic well-being of children and families. Good programs work to educate all citizens about the importance of the social and economic well-being of children and families; they share their results and participate in broad community forums to get their message out to the public. They work to influence legislative agendas.
8. Balance the political and technical dimensions of systems change. The focus of effective programs is a dual focus. Effective programs work hard to balance their efforts between changing the political landscape and improving their technical skills in developing systems change.

Cook and Orthner (2001) identified six major reasons why their North Carolina school-linked service project worked. These reasons include: (a) mutual self-interest, (b) willingness to risk, (c) a bridge partner, (d) common data, (e) political partners, and (f) budget flexibility. The North Carolina partnership that they describe was an innovative partnership among the public schools, a university, and the local department of social services. The group members had a common goal—improve the trajectory of children and their families in poverty. Before the partnership, the school and the social service agency could not share data even though they were working with many of the same families. Using the university as a bridge and capitalizing on block grant funding, the program developed a common goal and intervention plan.

It is clear that there is no one model that will fit all school-linked service programs, but there are attributes that successful programs share. Some of the programs work with early childhood initiatives only; other programs work with teenagers only. Some programs succeed in low-income urban

areas while others thrive in rural communities. A variety of ethnic and cultural groups are involved in different kinds of projects that meet the needs of their communities. There are many examples of quality school-linked service programs and several outstanding examples are described in boxes throughout this chapter, representing some of the many diverse approaches to school-linked service programs.

HOW CAN SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS PREVENT SERVICE DELIVERY PROBLEMS?

The work involved in school-linked service projects is not easy. Once the initial euphoria about getting more services to more children and families has calmed, the real-world problems of working in partnership with diverse agencies have risen to the forefront. Most school-linked service programs have been able to overcome the turf wars and the funding issues, and they have been able to do that because they have prepared themselves for possible problems.

The Annie E. Casey Foundation's publication, *The Path of Most Resistance: Reflections on Lessons Learned from New Futures* (1995), lists eight lessons learned from its ambitious five-year initiative to restructure the way that five communities planned, financed, and delivered educational, health, and other services to at-risk youth. Their programs focused on deep, systemic reform and involved all parts of the community. Although they remind us that their eight lessons are not brand-new insights, these insights do help us remember that we as educators need to be cognizant of potential barriers. Their lessons include the following:

- Comprehensive reforms are very difficult
- It takes time
- It's not for every community
- Local ownership is no simple matter
- Refine and modify plans
- Communicate
- Real change often depends on increases in economic opportunity and social capital
- Stay at it

The foundation's report was a clear reminder that their school-linked service programs are not a quick fix for today's problems. They do require dedication, hard work, and time. The examples in the report provide rich detail for programs about mistakes that can be avoided and about the need for programs to develop resiliency. The report makes it clear that not everything will go smoothly in developing comprehensive partnership pro-

grams. At the same time, the report is extremely optimistic about the many positive outcomes for children, families, schools, and communities who "stay at it" and work to overcome barriers.

The North Central Regional Laboratory's *Critical Issue: Restructuring Schools to Support School-Linked Services* (Fleming & Lubin, 1998) also discusses key implementation issues for teachers and schools. It describes pitfalls that idealistic reformers often overlook. Specifically, it focuses on the reluctance of school personnel to take on additional responsibilities because they do not see a direct connection between students' academic achievement and their personal issues. Some may even feel threatened by the inclusion of outside personnel on committees and teams that used to be for teachers only. They suggest that teachers need to be included from the very beginning of the project and not just added in later. Schools also need to look at how they can restructure the roles of principals and teachers to embrace an expanded view of how children learn. Teachers need support in their new roles, and schools must provide appropriate ongoing professional development and resources so that they can fulfill their new responsibilities.

Gordon Karim, program associate at the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (Fleming & Lubin, 1998), emphasizes the need for school-linked service programs to be certain that they are pro-family. Local family and community needs should be driving the vision of the collaborative and not the needs of the agencies. This means being responsive to culture, language, and history of the communities as a program begins. Too often, programs go into a community to fix the ills without looking at the strengths of the children and families in the communities. This attitude sets the program up for failure and can become a permanent barrier to a successful school-linked service program. The U.S. Department of Education and the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services developed a helpful checklist of questions for ensuring that programs are pro-family and culturally sensitive.

Checklist of Questions to Help Make Service Delivery Choices for a Pro-Family System

- What mechanisms will partners use to ensure that a wide range of developmental, prevention, support, and crisis intervention and treatment services are available to all children and families in the targeted neighborhood?
- Which partners have resources (including staff, materials, funds, and expertise) or services that they could redirect toward a joint effort?

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

- How can partners redirect resources to support services for families who are not eligible for categorically funded services?
- What steps can partners take to ensure that all families receive the degree of services they need when they need them, while reserving funds for those most in need?
- What services will the collaborative provide for youths who are not in school and for adult family members? How will these services be provided?
- What mechanisms will the collaborative use to make referrals and ensure follow-up?
- What measures must the collaborative take to involve the family (including extended family members) as partners in planning and implementing service delivery strategies?
- What measures will ensure that service agencies work to meet family needs rather than institutional preferences?
- How will the collaborative identify and complement family strengths?
- How can partners overcome families' distrust of service providers, especially among immigrant populations?
- What efforts will the collaborative make to include the families who are the hardest to reach in the system?
- What mechanisms will partners need to ensure respect and appreciation for cultural differences and to prevent undue intrusion into family matters, especially among immigrant populations?
- What actions should partners take to ensure that service delivery is not only equal and nondiscriminatory, but also responsive to the needs of all groups?
- What do partners need to do to establish assessment and treatment processes that define "normal" in the context of each family's culture?
- Where and when will services be provided?
- What training and supervision should partners provide to help staff at all levels understand and accept responsibility for improving outcomes for families?
- What can partners do to reduce accessibility barriers such as limited transportation, lack of childcare, illiteracy, and lack of handicapped access?
- What needs to be done to respect and to use a family's spiritual and religious beliefs and traditions as resources?

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

- What mechanisms must partners develop to improve accountability for individual and community outcomes and the cost-effective use of existing resources?

Melaville & Blank, *Together We Can: A Guide for Crafting a Profamily System of Education and Human Services*, 1993

HOW DO YOU FUND A SCHOOL-LINKED SERVICE PROGRAM?

Funding is often a central issue for school-linked service programs. How do you get the dollars to start a program? Who pays for what? Whose budgetary procedures do you use? We cannot take the relationship between quality services to children and how to pay for these services lightly or leave the decisions to someone else.

Farrow and Joe (1992) make a strong case for addressing funding issues as the first step in developing school-linked service programs. Too often, the issue of funding is so sensitive that partners prefer to wait until they have the program operating to discuss this delicate issue. Farrow and Joe suggest that focusing on funding first has two distinct advantages. First, the very nature of the kind of program you can provide is dependent upon the funding. If you focus on funding first, you must examine your priorities and the usefulness of the services to families. Second, if you begin with the budget, you will have tackled the hardest part of your collaborative program first. Goals cannot be achieved if programs are not willing to allocate their dollars accordingly. Focusing on funding requires school-linked programs to examine their vision and specific goals very carefully. Commitment to the goals of the program requires a commitment to a budget that supports these goals.

Funding a school-linked service project is a tough job, one that demands commitment. Financing a school-linked service program requires that participants examine issues of authority, control, and priorities. Funding is a topic that most program planners do not like to discuss because it is complicated and it is often a quick way to have the new program door closed. Farrow and Bruner (1993) report that no definitive method exists.

Hare (1995) describes several state-funded initiatives in California, New Jersey, Kentucky, Missouri, and Florida. Foundations such as the Hogg Foundation and the Annie E. Casey Foundation have supported school-linked service projects, and the federal government has sponsored a number of demonstration programs through the National Center for Service Integration and Service Integration Facilitation Grants. Many programs

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

are able to access funding through Title IV-E of the Social Security Act; the Job Opportunities and Basic Skills Training Program; the Alcohol, Drug Abuse and Mental Health Administration Reorganization Act of 1992; and the Individuals with Disabilities Act. Most recently, the Twenty-first Century Community Learning Grants have provided much-needed dollars to school-linked service projects.

Some programs combine funding to create their comprehensive system; Dryfoos (1994) lists at least 16 different categorical funding sources that are being combined to fund various school-linked service programs. Some programs combine Drug-Free Schools money, Child Health Block Grants, Healthy Start, and Child Protective Service Grants to complete their budgets, and some schools pay for school social work services by Medicaid reimbursements for eligible students. Many different patterns of funding have emerged.

Sometimes school-linked service programs begin with some financial commitment from each of the partners, and then they extend the program's funding by seeking external funds. Chavkin (1997) writes about ways that school-linked service programs can begin by developing their vision, goals, and plans first, and then seeking a relevant funding source. Too often programs try to fit their school-linked service project to the request for proposals before they are clear about their mission. She provides eight suggestions for how to be successful in seeking grants for school-linked service programs. These suggestions include the following:

1. *Begin proactively.* Have a clear vision and goals of what your school-linked service program wants to do, and then seek out funding. Try to understand the grantor's values and goals. Apply for the grant when there is a clear match between values. Do not just write a grant to fit the grantor's guidelines—make sure that it fits within the vision and goals for your program.
2. *Demonstrate need.* Many school-linked service programs understand their needs so well that they tend to focus only on the solutions—how they can solve their needs. When writing a grant, one needs to make certain that needs are explained in great detail. The grantor must know how the grant will meet needs.
3. *Describe the project clearly.* Take time to be clear about your goals, objectives, activities, and tasks. Use pictures and charts to show the connections between the need for the project and how the goal and objectives meet the need for the project.
4. *Provide organizational capability.* Grant seekers need to make clear to the reader that they are capable of carrying out the project. They should describe their physical resources (i.e., office equipment,

library), strong community support (letters can be included in an appendix), and previous track record (list other accomplishments).

5. *Explain finances.* The budget should be as specific as possible. Large purchases, subcontracts, and unusual expenditures should be explained. Be careful of asking for too much money for equipment; many funders prefer that their dollars go to direct services. See if you can leverage funding by obtaining matching funds from other organizations.
6. *Document success and accountability.* If possible, use an external evaluator to provide an objective look at success and failure. Make certain to include both formative and summative evaluation.
7. *Fine-tune the proposal.* Have people outside your project read and edit your proposal. It is best to have two types of readers—lay readers and expert readers. Work on making the writing clear and concise.
8. *Try again.* Very few grants are funded on the first submission, but most are funded after revisions and resubmissions.

Kirst (1993) praises the creative and diverse ways that schools are funding school-linked service programs, but, at the same time, he cautions that schools alone cannot be responsible for obtaining the entire budget. He stresses the importance of community involvement and commitment to the funding issue. Kirst posits that how the finance issue is resolved is a key component of the definition of a school-linked service program:

> a systemic change that enables parents to better consume and tailor public and private services to their special needs. . . . All levels of government must change their fiscal requirements and incentives to enhance school linkages. The scope of school linkage may vary with the local context but should include a common intake and management system. (p. 166)

For Kirst and many others, if school-linked service programs have not obtained fiscal commitment from their community partners, then they are not truly a collaborative program. We clearly need major changes in the way that our nation funds education, health, and social services. Funding is central to the whole concept of school-linked services and should not be left to last. Schools and agencies need restructure to focus on community priorities, and this restructuring definitely includes how dollars are allocated.

HOW DO WE KNOW IF SCHOOL-LINKED SERVICE PROGRAMS ARE WORKING?

Knapp (1995) uses the term "thin" to describe the methodology literature to date about how to study school-linked service partnerships, and his view

is strongly supported by others. Dryfoos (1994), working in the field of school-linked services, and Weiss and Greene (1992), working in the field of family support, were some of the first to argue that the traditional methodological approaches are not appropriate for any type of evaluation of partnership programs. Recently, the Harvard Family Research Project (1997) published an annotated bibliography, *The Guide to Results-Based Accountability*, in order to keep abreast of new ideas in the area of research on collaborative efforts. The field is new and very complicated.

Knapp's provocative article in *Educational Researcher* (1995) was titled with a question: How shall we study comprehensive, collaborative services for children and families? He presented five sets of issues that are critical to researchers and evaluators of school-linked service programs. These issues include: (1) divergent participants' perspectives, (2) the independent variable, (3) the outcome, (4) attribution, and (5) the study process. These issues are critical to understanding school-linked service programs.

Knapp (1995) says that we must first learn how to work with the many different groups that are involved with the school-linked service partnership. Addressing this first issue is not simple because often different disciplines are involved and there are differences in perspective between those who are doing the research and those who are being studied. Many times, there are political and contextual issues to consider because school-linked service projects are inherently public. The second issue, what Knapp refers to as "the elusive independent variable," is also difficult. The word *partnership* has different meanings to different people—sometimes it is linked to coordination, sometimes to collaboration, sometimes to joint or shared services. Partnerships are also supposed to be flexible to meet the needs of the client. It is not always clear what exactly is the independent variable. Moreover, if determining the independent variable is confusing, then what about the third issue, the dependent variable or the outcome? Is the outcome academic achievement, social well-being, an improved school climate, or a stronger partnership? There are many more possibilities for outcomes. The fourth issue, attribution, is always a difficult one for researchers. Can we be sure that it is the partnership causing the improvement in outcome? When will we be able to make confident claims about the effects of partnerships? The fifth issue, the relationship between the researchers and participants in a partnership, is not an impossible issue, but it can make the relationship between participants and service providers more complex and intrusive.

Knapp (1995) says that there are several approaches that he does not think will work. He believes it is too early for meta-analyses because there are no commonly defined independent variables or outcome measures. He suggests that correlational investigations using factor analytic studies will not work well with partnerships because the very nature of the collabora-

tive design leads to many variables being related spuriously. In addition, he believes that it is too early to push for group comparative experimental studies comparing recipients and nonrecipients because the researcher must prove that the treatment is identifiable and uniform and the recipients and nonrecipients are comparable. These kinds of forced research and evaluation studies will change the nature of developing partnerships into more of a scientific experiment than an emerging partnership.

Epstein (1996) also calls the study of a school, family, and community partnerships "a maturing field" that will "generate heat as well as light" (p. 212). She feels the emerging field of school, family, and community partnerships is strengthened by three characteristics of the participants and their work. First, because the academic disciplinary boundaries have blended, the research has improved our understanding of this complex issue. Second, because professional boundaries have blurred, practitioners, policymakers, and researchers are learning more from each other, and the very nature of how research is designed, conducted, and interpreted has changed. Third, the research questions have changed for the better. We are no longer asking if families and communities are important; we are now acknowledging that families and communities are important and asking how they can work together so that students benefit the most.

Epstein (1996) suggests that the results of previous studies have laid the groundwork for future research by generating many new questions. She suggests that much more work needs to be done, particularly with clearer questions, better data, stronger measurement models, more refined analyses, and more useful results. She lists five topics that are particularly compelling and need further study. These five topics are: (1) examining points of transition within the partnership and within schooling levels as students enter different grade units, (2) exploring the results or consequences of specific partnership activities, (3) defining the components of community, (4) studying the roles of students in their own educational success, and (5) having researchers collaborate with policy leaders and educators.

In 1994 the United States Department of Education and the American Educational Research Association in collaboration with the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the Association of Teacher Educators, and the National Center on Education in the Inner Cities sponsored a working conference on school-linked comprehensive services and published a report with key recommendations on what we still need to know (U.S. Department of Education & American Educational Research Association, 1995). The recommendations fell into six categories: (1) the effect of leadership on programs, (2) the need to address cultural sensitivity, (3) identification of benefits and strategies for a participant-driven approach, (4) the establishment of interprofessional training and preparation programs, (5) the design and implementation of new research and

evaluation strategies, and (6) the relationship between funding and effectiveness.

Chavkin (1998) reviewed the literature on evaluating school–community partnerships and compiled a list of nine recommendations to help find out whether school-linked programs are working. These recommendations include:

- Multiple, detailed case studies are an appropriate beginning
- Define your terms precisely
- Be clear about the outcomes you are seeking
- Understand the relationship between the theory of the school–family–community partnership and the school-linked service program
- Involve participants in partnership research
- Isolate the specific parts of partnerships in your studies
- Use objective measures rather than self-report measures whenever possible
- Consider levels of intervention
- Recognize unanticipated benefits

Chavkin's suggestions for ways to begin evaluating school-linked service programs not only provide support for the complexity of the process but also present some concrete strategies that are especially relevant to teachers and school personnel, particularly the recommendation to involve participants in the research planning. Teachers can and should take an active role in developing the questions to be studied in any evaluation of school-linked services.

In sum, we do not yet have a strong research base supporting school-linked service programs. If we want to make the case for these kinds of collaborative partnerships, new research strategies are needed because many traditional research methodologies are inappropriate for the complexity of school-linked service programs. We must be cautious as we consider the best ways to evaluate partnerships; the research needs to be appropriate at the current point in the partnership's development.

In the words of Gomby and Larson, "Evaluation of school-linked service initiatives, which are characterized by great flexibility and variability, is challenging but also possible and desirable" (1992, p. 68). We can and we must continue the effort to evaluate these programs. We need to continue to collect data so that we can measure not only the value of school-linked service programs but also determine *which* strategies work best *when*. Teachers and school personnel will play an important role in both collecting this data and analyzing its meaning.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

The one key word that encompasses all of the significant points about school-linked service programs is *reframing*. Reframing is an essential ingredient for school-linked service programs to work. These partnerships will just be the same old thing as before unless we as educators truly rethink our roles. Partnerships are not just people working together. We have always had schools working along with social service agencies; we have always had schools working with families and communities. Reframing demands that we take a new look at the roles we play and be certain that the families, communities, and agencies we want to be our partners are truly our partners. Too often we unthinkingly approach partnerships in the usual, professional, know-it-all way. If we knew it all, our educational system would not be in the crisis mode we see today.

We must begin with treating our families as partners and not clients or mere recipients of a service that we provide. We must ask for their ideas and not just tell them what it is they need. The word *need* is probably a word that has done us more harm than good. The very nature of the word implies judgment. Instead, I would suggest that partners sit down with a piece of paper divided into three columns labeled with the following symbols: √, +, − . Talk about what is okay with the school and the community, talk about what is great, and then talk about what you would like to improve. This simple checklist provides a positive starting point and builds on what is already working.

The reframing process also includes renewed attention to the vision, involvement, and planning stages of the school-linked service programs. These three stages are critical to the success of school-linked service programs.

The vision component of building a school-linked service program begins with getting together a group of people from different parts of the community and focusing on your commonalities. As a partnership explores what it is about and what it wishes to change or make better, the members build a relationship with each other and establish trust. There is no one in charge at this stage. The only agenda is to establish a vision. It does not matter whether the idea of exploring a partnership began from the top down or was a bottom-up phenomena. These kinds of distinctions are blurred. The focus is on developing the vision. The result should be an overarching goal and perhaps several short-term goals.

The vision component is essentially the beginning step of reframing our traditional approach to working with families and communities. If we truly want change, we as professionals must change the way we approach family and community involvement. We must meet the families and community on their own turf. We must ask them to tell us their dreams and their goals.

We need to get out of the traditional needs assessment approach by which we as professionals tell families and communities what it is they need. Instead, we must use a strength-building approach. What are the resources and capabilities of families and the community? "Taking stock" of the strengths of families and communities is a first step toward the involvement component.

The involvement component of building a partnership focuses on collaboration. The school and community become linked. The emphasis should be on diversity with a wide range of current skills and previous backgrounds represented. The partnership should consist of at least three main groups: the consumers, the public entities, and the private entities. The consumers are the families and communities we are working with—whomever the target goal is directed toward. The public consists of social service agencies, elected officials, media, and others in related civic or governmental positions. The private entity consists of both businesses and social service agencies. The important part of involvement is to make certain that all the key players are involved from the beginning. The emphasis in this component is on teaming and sharing. It is a move away from a mere decision to act to a real commitment to act.

The planning component of building a partnership is the most misunderstood part. It continues the tradition of shared collaboration and teaming, then it moves forward to a data-driven, evaluative stage. Planning necessitates time and patience. It is an ongoing stage that never ends. Most partnerships tend to allot a short amount of time to planning and jump right into implementation. Everybody wants to see action. Successful partnerships implement programs and activities, evaluate these programs and activities, reflect on these programs and activities, and then plan revisions of these programs and activities. A key word here is ongoing evaluation. If you only evaluate at the end, you are using an "autopsy" approach, which is too late to benefit the program. Formative evaluation is essential. The planning component should be ongoing and should include constant evaluation, reflection, feedback, and new trials. Inservice should be a major part of the planning component. People need assistance when asked to perform new roles. Many have not been taught to work in teams, to share, or to relate to other professions. Financial awareness is also important in the planning stage. At this stage it is better to focus on what it is we can do with the limited resources we have rather than what we cannot do because we don't have the money.

Reframing our approach to partnership is essential. Vision, involvement, and planning are three key ingredients of successful school-linked service programs. Many people ask if these are steps to partnerships; the answer is "no." You cannot look at these concepts linearly. They are too interrelated, too connected to be seen as steps or even straight lines. In

many ways, the vision is always being fine-tuned, even during the planning component just after evaluating an activity. The process loops back before moving forward. There is no direct, straight path to a successful school-linked service program; the relationships and the progress are not linear. The book *Together We Can* (Melaville & Blank, 1993) has an excellent diagram of the planning process (see Figure 4.3).

There is no easy recipe for how to develop a school-linked service program. No two communities are alike. Building successful school-linked service programs will take a reframing of what we as educators see as our task, and it will take a reframing of our professional behaviors.

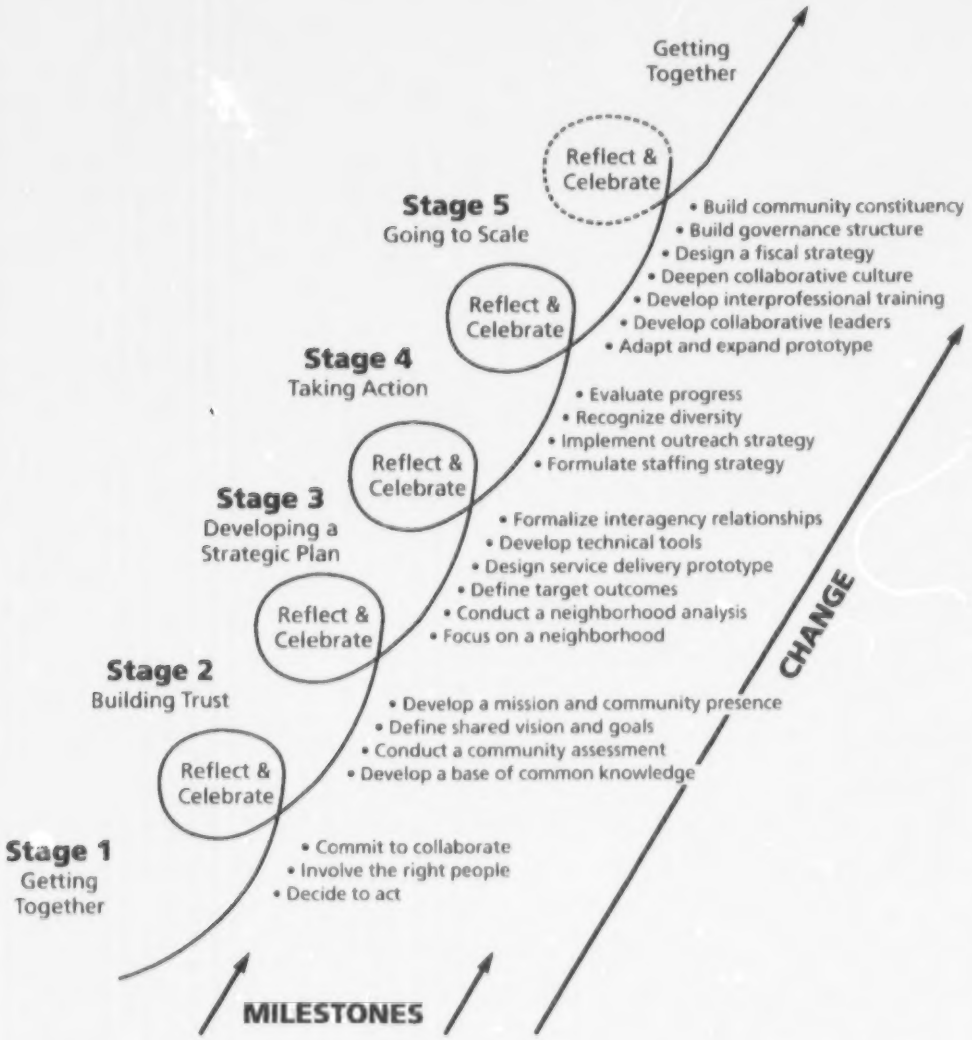


Figure 4.3. Building a new system: A five stage-process for change (Melaville & Blank, 1993).

As Lisbeth Schorr (1998) noted, it is "within our reach to change the futures of disadvantaged children." This ecological model can be replicated in any American community. Together we can significantly improve students' academic achievement and aspirations.

Santa Clara County, California

The Santa Clara County School-Linked Services System consists of a collaboration between the departments of public health, drug and alcohol, probation, mental health, social services, ambulatory care, schools, and community partners. The major goal is to provide easily accessible services to maximize the learning potential of all Santa Clara County students.

The school-linked service program offers three different models of service delivery, and each site determines the most effective service delivery model for its population. The three models are service delivery teams, family community teams, and medical and dental mobile services. The program follows eight principles that guide all efforts in achieving the vision. It is important that a program be easily accessible, strength based, family focused, culturally sensitive, comprehensive, preventive, coordinated, and evaluated. All service positions should be (a) located on school sites, (b) acting as a resource to families and school staff, (c) capable of providing a full scope of services, (d) serving students and family members at no cost, and (e) actively participate on student support teams. For further information, see the website http://www.school-linkedservices.org/

Hogg Foundation

The Hogg Foundation for Mental Health at the University of Texas has sponsored numerous school-linked, comprehensive service projects. The Schools of the Future program included coordinated health and human service delivery, parent involvement, employment assistance, recreational programs, psychological and social work services, and enhancement of cultural identity. Each site developed site-specific programming to meet the needs of the children and families. The Dallas site included a "Dad Club," and the San Antonio site provided bilingual/multicultural programming. Current initiatives include: (a) Fragile Families, an innovative statewide partnership with the Center for Public Policy Priorities, which

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

facilitates the development of community-based services for young, low-income fathers; (b) the Greater Houston Collaborative for Children, a partnership seeking to provide long-term fiscal and technical assistance to initiatives that work collaboratively to provide comprehensive, community-based, prevention-oriented services; and (c) Healthy Steps for Young Children, a national pilot project to expand pediatric care to include mental and developmental well-being. For further information, see the website http://www.hogg.utexas.edu/

Kentucky Department of Education

Kentucky legislators provided the impetus for comprehensive, statewide, and integrated service delivery systems in 1990 as part of the Kentucky Education Reform Act. Family Resource Centers serve elementary schools and provide access to childcare, parent training, child development training, parent and child and education services, and health screening services and referrals. Youth Services Centers provide employment counseling, training, and placement; summer and part-time job development; drug and alcohol abuse counseling; and family crisis and mental health counseling for high school students. To become a center, the school site must have a student population in which 20% of the population qualifies for free school lunch. Once approved, the entire community is welcome to use the services. Each school has an advisory council that includes schools and parent representatives, and this council is responsible for conducting needs assessments, setting policies, reviewing budgets, and planning for the future of the program. For further information, see the website http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/envrnmnt/css/cs1lk27.htm

Casa Esperanza (House of Hope)

Casa Esperanza is a local, multidisciplinary university–school–community partnership that focuses on improving the mental health of children and families at risk in Hays County, Texas. At one site, the partnership is housed in a house adjacent to the local elementary school, and at the other site, the partnership is housed in a house adjacent to the university campus. In both settings, the offices are decorated to look more like a home than an office. They are friendly places

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

where families and children can come to obtain parent education, counseling, and resources. Services are provided by Southwest Texas State University student interns from the fields of social work, educational and psychological services, family and child development, and sociology, and the student interns are supervised by university faculty. The local Even Start program contracts with Casa Esperanza to provide parent education classes and parent liaison for families seeking to improve their literacy and parenting skills. The budget for this program is funded by a variety of sources, including university, city, and grant dollars. For further information, see the website http://www.healthswt.edu/sowk/casa

Sandtown-Winchester School-Based Health Centers

In an effort to be the center for providing community support to families of elementary school children, the University of Maryland School of Nursing in partnership with the Baltimore City Government, the Enterprise Foundation, and local schools established the Vision for Health Consortium. The school-based health centers were part of the larger initiative to transform neighborhoods and meet family health needs. The initiative included clear connections with schools, social service agencies, and recreation centers. Residents first defined their vision of what a healthy community would look like and then addressed the gaps in the community. Unprecedented collaboration occurred among private health care providers, who were previously competitors, to create and deliver comprehensive health care services. For further information, see the website http://www.enterprisefoundation.org/

REFERENCES

Abbott, E., & Breckinridge, S. (1917). *Truancy and non-attendance in the Chicago schools.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

American Federation of Teachers. (1991). *Coordinating nonschool services that support learning.* Washington, DC: Author.

Annie E. Casey Foundation. (1995). *The path of most resistance: Reflections on lesson learned from New Futures.* Baltimore: Author.

Center for the Future of Children. (1992). School-Linked Services. In R. E. Behrman (Ed.), *The future of children, 2*(1), Los Altos, CA: The David and Lucile Packard Foundation.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Chavkin, N. F. (1997). Funding school-linked services through grants: A beginner's guide to grantwriting. *Social Work in Education, 19*, 164–175.

Chavkin, N. F. (1998). Making the case for school, family, and community partnerships: Recommendations for research. *The School Community Journal, 8*(1), 9–21.

Chynoweth, J. K., & Dyer, B. (1991). *Strengthening families: A guide for state policymaking.* Washington, DC: Council of Governors' Policy Advisors.

Cook, P. G., & Orthner, D. K. (2001). What about the kids? Linking schools and social services under welfare reform. *Journal of Community Practice, 9*(3), 95–109.

Dryfoos, J. (1994). *Full-service schools: A revolution in health and social services for children, youth, and families.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Edelman, P., & Radin, B. (1992). *Serving children and families effectively: How the past can help chart the future.* Washington, DC: Institute for Educational Leadership.

Epstein, J. L. (1996). Perspectives and previews on research and policy for school, family, and community partnerships. In A. Booth & J. F. Dunn (Eds.), *Family–school links: How do they affect educational outcomes?* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Farrow, F., & Bruner, C. (1993). *Getting to the bottom line: State and community strategies for financing comprehensive community service systems* (Resource Brief No. 4). New York: National Center for Service Integration and Columbia University's National Center for Children in Poverty.

Farrow, F., & Joe, T. (1992). Financing school-linked, integrated services. *The Future of Children, 2*(1), 56–67.

Fleming, R., & Lubin, S. (1998). *Restructuring schools to support school-linked services. Critical Issue Summary.* Naperville, IL: North Central Regional Education Laboratory.

Franklin, C., & Streeter, C.L. (1995). School reform: Linking public schools with human services. *Social Work, 40*, 773–783.

Freeman, E. M., & Pennekamp, M. (1988). *Social work practice: Toward a child, family, school, community perspective.* Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Gomby, D. S., & Larson, C. S. (1992). Evaluation of school-linked services. *The Future of Children, 2*(1), 68–84.

Hare, I. (1995). School-linked, integrated services. In R. L. Edwards (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of social work* (19th ed., Vol. 3, pp. 2100–2109). Washington, DC: NASW Press.

Harvard Family Research Project. (1997). *The guide to results-based accountability: Annotated bibliography of publications, web sites, and other resources.* Cambridge, MA: Author.

Hunter, R. (1905). *Poverty.* New York: Harper & Row.

Kirst, M. W. (1993). Financing school-linked services. *Education and Urban Society, 25*, 166–174.

Knapp, M. S. (1995). How shall we study comprehensive, collaborative services for children and families? *Educational Researcher, 24*(4), 5–16.

Lubove, R. (1973). *The professional altruist: The emergence of social work as a career (1880–1930).* New York: Atheneum.

Melaville, A. I., & Blank, M. J. (1993). *Together we can: A guide for crafting a profamily system of education and human services.* Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

National School Board Association. (1991). *Link up: A resource directory.* Alexandria, VA: Author.

Riis, J. (1902). *How the other half lives.* New York: Scribner.

Schorr, L. (1988). *Within our reach: Breaking the cycle of disadvantage.* New York: Anchor.

Schorr, L., Farrow, F., Hornbeck, D., & Watson, S. (1995). *The case for shifting to results-based accountability with a startup list of outcome measures.* Washington, DC: Improved Outcomes for Children Project and the Center for the Study of Social Policy.

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. (1990). *School-linked services: Avenues to achieving quality education for all.* Austin, TX: Author.

Texas Education Agency. (1993). *Family and community support: Coordinated education, health, and human services* (The Commissioner's Critical Issue Analysis Series, No. 2). Austin, TX: Author.

Tyack, D. (1992). Health and social services in public schools: Historical perspectives. *The Future of Children, 2*(1), 19–31.

U. S. Department of Education and American Educational Research Association. (1995). *School-linked comprehensive services for children and families: What we know and what we need to know.* Washington, DC: Author.

Wang, M. C., Haertel, G. D., & Walberg, H. J. (1997). *What we know about coordinated school-linked services* (Publication Series No. 1). Philadelphia: Laboratory for Student Success, Temple University Center for Research in Human Development and Education.

Weiss, H. B., & Greene, J. G. (1992). An empowerment partnership for family support and education programs and evaluation. *Family Science Review, 5*(1), 131–148.

Young, N., Gardner, S., Coley, S., Schorr, L., & Bruner, C. (1994). *Making a difference: Moving to outcome-based accountability for comprehensive service reforms* (Resource Brief No. 7). Falls Church, VA: National Center for Service Integration.

CHAPTER 5

SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITIES WORKING TOGETHER TO IMPLEMENT YOUTH BEHAVIORAL HEALTH PROGRAMS

Carl I. Fertman

The growing recognition of youth behavioral needs has been the impetus to design and implement behavioral health programs in schools (U.S. Surgeon General, 2001). During the 1980s and 1990s, schools emerged as favorite sites for behavioral health programs (Adelman & Taylor, 2000). Schools are the place children and teenagers are accessible on a regular basis and, therefore, are optimal settings to address behavioral health needs and concerns (Weist, 1997).

The term "behavioral health" has its roots in the health care insurance industry to differentiate behavioral from physical health. Initially, behavioral health was thought of as encompassing only severe mental health and substance abuse illnesses (Freeman & Trabin, 1994). However, in the years since the early 1990s, behavioral health has been defined as encompassing social, emotional, and mental health issues, and covers prevention, treatment, wellness, and health promotion programs (Fertman, 2002).

Promising Practices to Connect Schools With the Community, pages 71–93
Copyright © 2002 by Information Age Publishing
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.

Every day schools and communities work together to implement behavioral health programs. Among the most widely practiced approaches are partnerships between community behavioral health agencies and schools, broad based community coalitions, and youth behavioral health needs assessments. The practices discussed in this chapter are research-based strategies currently utilized in diverse communities, including urban, suburban or rural, large or small. These promising practices have a middle school and high school focus; however, applications and modifications of the practices for preschools and elementary schools are commonly found in communities.

COMMUNITY BEHAVIORAL HEALTH AGENCY AND SCHOOL PARTNERSHIPS

Partnerships between community behavioral health agencies and schools are critical for meeting students' behavioral health needs and concerns (Adelman & Taylor, 2000). Most schools and community agencies look for ways to work together to meet students' emotional, social, and mental health needs, but it is not always easy. Agencies and schools have different schedules, philosophies, language, and expertise. Schools and community agencies are concerned for and supportive of youth, but often, due to their separate missions, have different approaches and agendas. To help school administrators establish school and community agency partnerships, six keys to collaboration are suggested (Fertman, 1993).

1. *Goals.* Be clear about why the school and agency are working together. Be specific about which problems, concerns, or issues are to be addressed. Define the target population.
2. *Roles.* Define roles for both the school and the agency. Write down individual tasks and responsibilities. Talk frankly about how to access the youth, obtain necessary information, and make decisions about which programs and services are used. Be aware that roles change with time and with each collaborative effort.
3. *Balance.* Collaboration implies that everyone contributes something, with emphasis on efficient use of existing resources. Contributions by individuals and organizations reflect their strengths and interests. Participation does not always mean providing services. Often what is needed are in-kind contributions, technical expertise, and access to desired resources and information.
4. *Equality.* Respect each other and work toward the best interest of the students, families, community, and school. No single job or tasks should overshadow the work of others or the goal that brought the

school and agency together. Attempts to work outside the process often create obstacles to future collaborations.

5. *Trust.* Be candid about the risks and mutual benefits of working together. Both schools and agencies are justifiably concerned about possible damage to their reputations. A mutual understanding of the risks as well as the benefits may help reduce anxiety.
6. *Coordination.* Establish a timeline and a system to ensure plans progress as designed and goals are accomplished. For example, one person might be assigned to coordinate a specific aspect of the collaboration, or a task force of stakeholders might meet regularly to monitor the process.

School and community agency partnerships are essential to providing students access to a range of behavioral health programs. Such partnerships create multiple access points and diversity of providers to meet the students' needs. Furthermore, the partnerships build the capacity of the community agencies and schools to participate in the implementation of behavioral health programs.

School administrators and agency directors can strengthen their partnerships by using three strategies. First is to obtain information about effective programs developed by other organizations and universities. Second is to know the existing community and school behavioral health programs and services that serve students. Third is to coordinate school and community behavioral health programs.

Obtain Information about Effective Programs

In the 1970s and 1980s the growing interest in problems concerning mental health and drug and alcohol abuse prevention fueled the implementation of interventions to meet students' social, emotional, and mental health needs. A defining moment for schools and community agency partnerships was the passage of the Principles of Effectiveness (Table 5.1) as part of the 1998 Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act (SDFSCA). The Principles of Effectiveness addressed a universal need for effective programs to meet students' behavioral health problems. Due to the Principles of Effectiveness, for the first time funds were linked to schools' and communities' implementation of programs for students, which were theory-based and proven effective. The Principles of Effectiveness had the effect of pushing schools and communities to think strategically about allocating resources to address the behavioral health needs of specific target student populations. Additionally, they provided resources that increased the capacity of schools and communities to address these needs. (The Safe and Drug-Free Schools website is http://www.ed.gov/offices/OESE/SDFS)

Table 5.1. Safe and Drug-Free Schools Principles of Effectiveness (U.S. Department of Education, 1998).

SDFSCA-funded programs with other available prevention efforts to maximize the impact of all the drug and violence prevention programs and resources available to its state, school district, or community, and shall do the following:	
1.	base its programs on a thorough assessment of objective data about drug and violence problems in the schools and communities served;
2.	with the assistance of a local or regional advisory council where required by the SDFCA, establish a set of measurable goals and objectives, and design its programs to meet those goals and objectives;
3.	design and implement its programs for youth based on research or evaluation that provides evidence that the programs used prevent or reduce drug use, violence, or disruptive behavior among youth; and
4.	evaluate its programs periodically to assess its progress toward achieving its goals and objectives, and use its evaluation results to refine, improve, and strengthen its programs, and to refine its goals and objectives as appropriate.

In response to the Principles of Effectiveness, several initiatives were undertaken by national organizations and federal agencies to identify programs and services that meet the Principles' standards. The programs identified through these initiatives have an academic orientation with an emphasis on curricula, activities, and psychoeducational processes for specific populations. To a large degree they are developed in universities through demonstration grants and research studies. For example, The Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence (n.d.) at the University of Colorado at Boulder initiated a project to identify violence prevention programs. The Center for Substance Abuse Prevention (n.d.) focused on substance abuse and violence prevention programs, with an emphasis on enhancing protective factors. The Safe and Drug-Free Schools Programs (n.d.) represent the federal government's efforts to reduce drug abuse, alcohol use, tobacco use, and violent behavior through education and prevention activities.

Know Your Community and School Behavioral Health Programs

School and community agency staffs need to know all the community and school behavioral health programs that serve students. Many of the programs were developed in the 1980s and 1990s and reflect a biopsychosocial model of social, emotional, and mental health. Consequently, a variety of approaches and models for prevention, intervention, and treatment for behavioral health problems are now available, such as medication, fam-

ily education, mobile therapy, day treatments, 12-step approaches, and cognitive-behavioral therapy (Kaminer, 2001). Reflecting the biopsychosocial model of behavioral health, programs in the community have moved beyond the traditional inpatient and outpatient models to newer, innovative approaches (Table 5.2). Likewise, whereas substance abuse and mental health programs were restricted to problem treatment, today many programs and services focus on social, emotional, and mental health promotion and problem prevention. Examples include screenings, consultation, education, and alternative activities. Another change is the active involvement of youth serving organizations such as 4-H Clubs, Boys' and Girls' Clubs, self-help groups, and faith-based organizations in the behavioral health service system, particularly in the areas of mental health promotion and problem prevention.

Programs and services such as those listed in Table 5.2 are the products of a system of care constructed by many stakeholders. Families, youth, teachers, counselors, nurses, community members, clergy, child-care workers, principals, public officials, and lawyers are just some of the many people who can identify gaps in the system, advocate for funding, champion the need, and design, implement, and staff the programs and services. Schools and communities should work to develop and implement as many of these programs and services as possible to meet the behavioral health needs of the students.

Table 5.2. Traditional and Innovative Youth Behavioral Health Programs and Services (Adapted from Lewin Group, 2000)

Type of Service	*Program Characteristics*
Screenings	• Onsite (e.g., school, community center, workplace) mental health screening and information
Consultation and education services	• Policy and procedure review and development
	• Mental health education and program planning, implementation, and evaluation
	• Staff training
	• Parent education and information
Case management	• Individual case support and management
Alternative activities	• Mental health promotion activities focused on social competency and support
Inpatient psychiatric care	• Short-term (typically less than two weeks) care in psychiatric hospital due to crisis
	• Emergency room service, crisis support
	• Evaluation and treatment recommendation

Table 5.2. Traditional and Innovative Youth Behavioral Health Programs and Services (Adapted from Lewin Group, 2000) (Cont.)

Type of Service	*Program Characteristics*
Emergency services	• Crisis situation intervention to aid and advise
	• Emergency numbers operate 24 hours a day
Supportive counseling	• Traditional outpatient counseling
	• Individual, group, family, and couple formats
Day treatment (partial hospitalization)	• Falls in the middle of continuum of care, between inpatient and outpatient
	• Setting varies from hospital-based to school-based
	• Considered most intensive of long-term, nonresidential MH services available to children
	• Can include provisions for education, counseling, vocational counseling, crisis intervention, recreation
Day treatment models in schools	• Educational assessment and planning
	• Special schools that provide full-day educational programs
	• Onsite mental health services linked to in-home services for families and full-time residential schools
Therapeutic foster care	• Least restrictive form of care among residential services
	• Provides treatment for troubled children within private homes of trained families
	• Combines family-based care with specialized treatment
Complementary and alternative medicine	• Body and mind focus
	• Holistic approaches focused on stress management and wellness
Self-help groups	• Community-based peer and social support
	• Assistance for seeking help and referral
	• Sense of belonging
Faith-based programs	• Individual, group, family, and couples counseling based on religious principles
	• Addresses spiritual concerns
	• Prayer is an integral part of the programs
Youth corrections	• Designed for youth on probation for minor offenses or youth who have been adjudicated through the courts
	• Some corrections programs take the form of wilderness-based youth therapy programs, while others are secured residential programs

Table 5.2. Traditional and Innovative Youth Behavioral Health Programs and Services (Adapted from Lewin Group, 2000) (Cont.)

Type of Service	*Program Characteristics*
Home-based services (mobile therapy)	• Delivered primarily in family's home; also available in other community settings
	• Committed to family preservation and reunification
	• Ecological perspective and involves working with the community
	• Service delivery hours are flexible to meet needs of families
	• Multifaceted services including education, counseling, and skill training
Respite services	• Provided both in child's home and in out-of-home settings by trained respite providers
Residential treatment	• Extended treatment in restricted setting
	• Multifaceted services including education, counseling, and skill training
Group homes for specific populations	• Created for children and adolescents who cannot function in the family setting, but do not require institutional or residential care
	• Child is maintained in the community and continues to be involved in community life up to his or her best ability
	• Typically limited to eight or fewer residents
Independent living	• Residential programs helping young adults ages 18 to 25 successfully achieve independence
	• Assist youth in planning for education and career and work to resolve personal and family problems

Coordinate Behavioral Health Programs

Schools and agencies have developed and replicated model initiatives to coordinate school and community behavioral health programs. Such models exist at the national, county, and school levels that successfully bring together schools and communities in the planning, implementation, and evaluation process while providing programs.

At the national level, the Child and Adolescent Service System Program (CASSP) began in 1985. CASSP worked to create collaborations across systems by linking education, health, and legal systems for the purpose of behavioral health case management at the county level. CASSP helps children and adolescents with behavioral health problems access needed programs and services by providing an infrastructure of care that is both responsive and comprehensive in nature. The CASSP system provides a collaborative team that includes the child and family, treatment providers,

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

schools, and county administrators who are charged with meeting the unique needs of the child (Fowler, 1997). CASSP spans the public, private, and voluntary sectors, bringing together welfare, juvenile justice, education, and health care services. CASSP takes a child- and family-centered approach to coordinate and link programs to the child and family.

Based on the CASSP model, many federal agencies as well as private foundations launched multiple projects designed to develop programs to meet the service needs of children, added to local arrays of programs, developed new revenue sources, and fostered systems and service coordination and integration (Cole & Poe, 1993; Lourie, Stroul, & Friedman, 1998; Meyers & Davis, 1997). For example the Alaska Youth Initiative (VanDenBerg, 1993) was based on the CASSP concept of a system of care but used state-level leadership to create local-level, interdisciplinary community service teams to provide unconditional, individualized, or wraparound interventions. Likewise, the Vermont New Directions Programs (Santarcangelo, Bruns, & Yoe, 1998) developed and implemented multiple community programs to enhance the array of services. The program included specialized education, respite care, crisis stabilization, therapeutic case management, and interagency collaboration and integration. At the county level Weist (2001) describes the Child and Adolescent Program Planning Schema (CAPPS) that helps reduce fragmentation by identifying and resolving gaps in the mental health care system with a particular emphasis on enhancing mental health promotion and problem prevention.

Based on the CASSP model, the Student Assistance Program (SAP) is a model of cross-system collaboration. Such programs identify students with social, emotional, and mental health barriers to learning and link them to school and community resources. According to the National Association of Student Assistance Professionals (2002), in a number of states the Department of Education supports an extensive training system that prepares teachers and agency staff to work in SAP organizations. Furthermore, the states provide ongoing training and support for SAP implementation.

One student assistance program approach employs a core team. The team is composed of trained school and community agency professionals who together implement a four-phase process of referral, planning, intervention, and follow-up. The team members work together to link the student to appropriate school and community programs and resources. This team is responsible for accepting referrals, gathering information, seeking parent participation, assessments, and service referrals. Critical to this process is the community behavioral health (e.g., mental health and substance abuse) agency staff members who serve as team members and liaisons between the agencies and school. Typically, the community agency staff member works in the school for a designated amount of time each week. In most schools, it is these professionals who provide the assessments. Frequently, these profes-

sionals will also provide educational support groups and technical assistance to SAP teams. The agency staff members provide a link with the larger community behavioral health system. SAP teams do not provide mental health or drug and alcohol treatment. The student assistance team members do not diagnose, treat, or refer for treatment, but they may make a recommendation for an assessment for treatment. Student assistance team members are trained to identify problems, to determine whether or not the problem lies within the responsibility of the school, and make recommendations to assist the student and the parent. For those students receiving treatment from a community agency, the team, in collaboration with the parent and the agency, coordinates in-school support programs during and after treatment (Fertman et al., 2001).

COMMUNITY COALITIONS

Coalitions are defined as formal, multipurpose, and long term alliances among organizations, groups, and individuals (Butterfoos, Goodman, & Wandersman, 1993). Community coalitions are alliances that address behavioral health issues such as substance abuse, violence, crime, and economic development. They engage multiple sectors of the community such as schools, churches, businesses, and law enforcement. Community coalitions attempt to improve programs, services, policies, and practice in all relevant sectors (Berkowitz & Wolff, 2000). The concept of health-oriented coalitions has evolved over the past four decades. Today's coalitions combine human and material resources to effect change that individuals are unable to bring about independently.

Most schools are members of community coalitions. These coalitions have proven effective at employing community mobilization, mass media campaigns, volunteerism, and educational strategies to change systems and create new programs to meet the behavioral health needs of youth. Listed below are two examples of coalitions with schools as active partners, which successfully address the behavioral health needs of youth.

The Nashville Prevention Partnership

The mission of The Nashville Prevention Partnership (NPP; *www.npp.org*) is to unite individuals and organizations in efforts to reduce substance abuse and violence in Nashville. Among the problems addressed by the NPP are (1) neighborhood alcohol and drug problems, (2) African American males' risk for violence, and (3) DUI and alcohol-related automobile accident rates. Given that drug and alcohol abuse contribute to so many

other problems, the NPP covers a range of related problems such as (a) crime and violence, (b) neighborhood deterioration, (c) family problems, (d) work problems, (e) increased community costs, and (f) problematic interpersonal relationships. Because of the diversity of the problems it works on, the NPP involves many sectors of the community, including individuals, politicians, neighborhoods, social service providers, governmental agencies, religious organizations, schools, businesses, and the media.

San Antonio Fighting Back

San Antonio Fighting Back (SAFB; *www.safb.org*) is one of 14 Fighting Back sites in the United States and the only one in Texas. SAFB takes a grassroots approach to addressing the demand for illegal substances. Its three stated goals areas are to (a) increase treatment accessibility, (b) reduce drug-related crime, and (c) prevent youth substance abuse. A unique feature of the Fighting Back Initiative is that each site tailors programs to address specific community needs. SAFB has conducted its programs within a 25-mile area of San Antonio. These programs are (a) Operation Weed & Seed, (b) Value-Based Violence Prevention Initiative, (c) Ex-Offender Transition Programs, and (d) Inner-City Games.

Two national organizations that have provided leadership to meet youth behavioral health needs through coalitions are Community Anti-Drug Coalitions of America (CADCA) and Communities That Care. The CADCA is a membership-driven organization that gives antidrug coalition technical assistance and support. It promotes a seven-step process to form, plan, and implement a community coalition focused on substance use prevention (Community Anti-Drug Coalitions' of America, 2002). These steps are described below.

1. *Define the problem and its impact on your community.* In order to begin to address the problem of substance abuse in a community, it is essential to know the scope and nature of the problem. In this step, members offer a number of different ways in which their community coalition could collect data about the problem and use this information to begin formulating a plan to address the problem.
2. *Identify key stakeholders.* The resources, individuals, and agencies involved are resources for defining the problem and are also the first leads in establishing a coalition of committed and effected individuals. Coalitions need to involve representatives from each sector of the community: diverse cultural and ethnic groups, people with influence in the community, people most affected by the problem, the business community, and service organizations.

3. *Convene a meeting.* Schedule an evening meeting in a recognizable neighborhood facility such as a church, recreation center, or school. Promote attendance at the meeting at least two weeks before the date and offer childcare if possible.
4. *Share perspectives.* At the first meeting various perspectives about the causes of drug use and how to solve the problem must be shared. The coalition convener should be prepared to hear a number of perspectives and to facilitate a discussion that allows everyone to be heard. The convener should also frame the comments to help in the formation of problem statements and ultimately, the formation of a vision for the community.
5. *Discuss the current reality and the ideal.* Craft a statement of how coalition members would prefer the issue to look in the community. Communities often have a difficult time drawing a clear picture of where they want to go. It is not enough to simply say, "We want to end alcohol and drug abuse in our community." That is too broad, and it is not realistic. Instead, make a checklist of goals so the coalition knows where it wants to go before developing the plan to get there.
6. *Create a vision for the community.* The coalition's vision statement should indicate what the group is striving to achieve. The statement stays intact until the goal is achieved or until environmental factors or stakeholders' requirements necessitate change.
7. *Determine the next steps.* At this point, everyone has come to the table, discussed perceptions versus reality, and forged an inspirational vision statement. The coalition members should not walk away until everyone knows what is to be done next and there is a timetable for accomplishing these tasks.

Communities That Care (CTC, 2002) is one of the most widely utilized community coalition model approaches. Unique to CTC is its focus on the community coalition health planning process as a vehicle to implement a system to help communities develop an integrated approach to promoting the positive development of children and youth and to preventing problem behaviors in youth. These problems include substance abuse, delinquency, teen pregnancy, school dropout, and violence. CTC is designed to promote wholesome behavior leading to health, well-being, and personal success.

The emphasis on building up protection while reducing risks distinguishes the CTC approach. The system's theoretical framework, called the social development model, incorporates an understanding of factors leading to problems in adolescence (risk factors) and factors leading to healthy development (protective factors). The model has theoretical roots in con-

trol theory (Hirschi, 1969) and social learning theory (Akers, 1977; Bandura, 1977).

The social development model emphasizes the importance of bonding as a key protective factor. Strong positive bonds have three characteristics: attachment (positive relations with others), commitment (an investment in the future), and belief about what is right and wrong. The CTC model focuses on building communities to provide bonding opportunity, skills, and recognition.

Communities may use a five-phase CTC process (Table 5.3) to organize a broad-based coalition to promote the healthy development of young people in a community. It provides a unifying framework to bring together a wide range of stakeholders, programs, services, and initiatives to address youth issues in a comprehensive and systematic way. It builds on existing collaborative teams, coalitions, planning efforts, community structures, data profiles, programs, and activities.

1. In Phase One (Readiness), individual community members are drawn together out of one or more common concerns for the positive development of youth and a desire for action to address any concerns. The groundwork for having a unified, grassroots community effort is put in place. The community to be mobilized is defined and key stakeholders are identified. Building blocks and stumbling blocks to the initiative are inventoried and individuals to champion the effort are recruited.
2. In Phase Two (Introduce and Involve), the key stakeholders are brought together to share information and to create a vision statement and operating system design that sets a direction for the coalition.
3. In Phase Three (Develop a Data-Based Profile), a youth database profile and a community resource assessment are completed with the vision statement acting as a guide.
4. In Phase Four (Develop a Plan), an action plan is developed. As part of this phase, desired outcomes are defined and various approaches are investigated. An evaluation plan is devised.
5. In Phase Five (Implement the Plan), the plan is put into action. This includes building and sustaining relationships, developing information and communication systems, and educating the entire community. The monitoring and reporting of progress toward the desired outcomes is an important part of the phase. Finally, successes are celebrated (Hawkins & Catalano, 1992).

Table 5.3. Communities That Care Five Phase Process (Communities That Care, 2002)

Phase One: Readiness	• Mobilized, community-defined
	• Stakeholder identification
	• Community mapping
	• Building and stumbling block inventory
	• Recruit a champion
Phase Two: Introduce and Involve	• Key stakeholder engagement and education
	• Vision development
	• Operating system design
Phase Three: Develop a Data-Based Profile	• Data collection—risk and protective factors
	• Data analysis
	• Community resources assessment
Phase Four: Develop a Plan	• Define desired outcomes
	• Review promising approaches
	• Create action plans
	• Plan evaluation
Phase Five: Implement the Plan	• Implement action plans
	• Build/sustain collective relationships
	• Develop information and communication system
	• Educate and engage entire community
	• Monitor progress
	• Celebrate successes

YOUTH BEHAVIORAL HEALTH NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Implementing behavioral health programs requires current and accurate data about the behavioral health needs of children and teenagers in a community. Information is also needed about the community and school resources available to meet those needs. Pursuant to a school's academic mission, it is necessary for schools to collect sufficient student academic and achievement data, such as attendance, grades, club and sports team participation, school policy violations, and standardized test scores. It is also expected that schools would collect data on students' behavioral health needs. Schools and communities can use the data in a variety of ways such as the following:

1. Implement or modify programs and services to address the behaviors of young people.

2. Set program goals and objectives and monitor the progress toward those goals.
3. Create awareness of the extent of risk behaviors among young people.
4. Promote changes that support specific behavioral health education curricula and coordinated school health programs.
5. Seek funding from federal, state, and private sources by demonstrating need.

A number of options are available to schools and communities to gather information about students' mental health and substance use behavior. First, many schools conduct tailor-made student health surveys. A well-constructed student survey, specific to a school district and school building, can provide administrators with information they need to develop policy and curriculum materials and to refine existing programs and services in their buildings. Second, schools can conduct health needs assessments using standardized instruments. These have the advantage of letting schools compare and contrast their finding with other districts and schools. Furthermore, when students from a number of buildings and districts in an area complete the assessments, the findings provide the basis for local and regional planning. Third, schools can access existing national databases to provide information on trends and patterns in order to help direct local efforts. Many schools use all three.

Creating a Specialized School Survey

Creating a specialized school survey may give the best assessment of student needs in a particular school. Fertman and Sobehart (1994) described an eight step process to undertake a student health survey.

1. *Build a health team.* The health team directs the health survey design and implementation. It should be a diverse group of individuals representing the school, community agencies, community members, parents, and students.
2. *Determine the student concerns regarded as most pressing.* The health team discusses and identifies priorities related to areas of concern and determines which students will be surveyed.
3. *Gain support from the community and school.* Support and approval for a student health survey should be sought at a number of levels. When discussing the survey, explain clearly how the results will be used.
4. *Administer the health survey.* When the planning and development is complete, the survey is administered. In most schools, the goal is to get a representative sample of the total student population.

5. *Analyze the data and present the results clearly.* The health team plays a critical role by helping to design clear and concise reports.
6. *Disseminate results.* Results of the student health survey are usually of high interest to students, school and agency staff, parents, and community members. Be sensitive to all stakeholders' needs and concerns.
7. *Develop action plans for specific areas.* Once results are known, the health team should take responsibility for developing action plans to address identified needs.
8. *Expand the focus.* Upon completion of the health survey, schools often consider additional information collection to identify needs and concerns of parents, staff, and community members. Surveys are not always required. Small group discussions and meetings with such groups can also help to identify service gaps and new program initiatives.

Using Standardized Youth Health Needs Assessments

A number of standardized health surveys are available for schools to collect student behavioral health information. These need assessments are widely used by schools and communities to identify and meet the behavioral health needs of their students. The assessments provide aggregated data snapshots of the youth and families in a community. They have the advantage of allowing schools to compare and contrast their findings with other schools and communities. Many communities utilize the surveys to develop local databases to aid in the design, implementation, and evaluation of behavioral health programs. The surveys are not designed as an assessment of an individual student or as a pre–post program evaluation tool. Price and Drake (1999) recommend that communities and schools utilizing such assessments be aware of surveys' and databases' limitations.

1. The Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS) monitors six categories of priority health-risk behaviors among youth and young adults: (a) behaviors that contribute to unintentional and intentional injuries, (b) tobacco use, (c) alcohol and other drug use, (d) sexual behaviors that contribute to unintended pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), (e) unhealthy dietary behaviors, and (f) physical inactivity. The Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services conducts a national survey every two years to produce data representative of students in grades 9 through 12 in public and private schools in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. To ensure the availability of accurate and current information on health-risk behaviors among young

people, the CDC provides funding and technical support to states and major cities to conduct their own Youth Risk Behavior Survey (see http://www.cdc.gov/nccdphp/dash/yrbs/)

2. The Profile of Student Life: Attitudes and Behaviors Survey (www.search-institute.org) was developed by the Search Institute for use by schools and communities to assess the current level of developmental assets among groups of youth. Developmental assets are positive experiences, relationships, opportunities, and personal qualities that young people need to grow up healthy, caring, and responsible. The profile is grounded in research on child and adolescent development, risk prevention, and resiliency. It identifies 40 assets for young people's growth and development, 20 external and 20 internal. For simplicity of communication, developmental assets are measured dichotomously; that is, students either have or do not have the asset. The survey provides a portrait of the developmental assets, thriving indicators, deficits, and risk behaviors of youth in grades 6 through 12
3. Parents' Resource Institute for Drug Education (PRIDE), founded in 1977, is the largest and oldest organization in the United States devoted to drug- and violence-free youth. PRIDE programs are mainly devoted to reaching parents and youth at home, school, and work. The major PRIDE programs include the PRIDE Survey (www.pridesurveys.com), which focuses on student drug use and violence, the Annual PRIDE World Drug Conference, and the PRIDE Youth training programs. The youth training programs include America's PRIDE, Club PRIDE, and PRIDE Pals. The PRIDE Survey is currently used by more than 8,500 school systems. The survey has been field tested to ensure that it is valid and reliable. The survey measures changes in students' behaviors over time. Schools also can compare their data with the PRIDE Survey's national database. The PRIDE Survey is used in grades 4 through 12.
4. The Communities That Care (CTC) Youth Survey (www.prevention-science.com/prog_needs) contains the largest number of questions related to risk and protective factors of any needs-assessment survey available. By collecting data on risk and protective factors, the results of the CTC Youth Survey point to ways for developing resiliency in young people. In addition to identifying prevalence rates, it measures a comprehensive set of risk and protective factors that affect a community's adolescent academic performance and development. Aside from assessing risk and protective factors, the CTC Survey also measures the current prevalence of problem behaviors in communities. The CTC Survey currently in use was developed using normative

data from 72,000 students from grades 6 through 12 who participated in statewide surveys in Kansas, Maine, Oregon, South Carolina, and Washington.

5. The American Drug and Alcohol Survey (ADAS; *www.rmbsi.com*) asks students in grades 6 through 12 about their experiences with alcohol, tobacco, and illicit drugs. Questions deal with peer influences on drug use, attitudes about drugs, and perceptions of harm caused by drugs. The ADAS report focuses on various aspects of substance abuse, which are (a) the types of drugs used, (b) how often they are used, (c) the percentage of youth who are drug-free, (d) the percentage of youth who are involved in substance abuse at high, low, or moderate levels, (e) where and when youths use drugs, (f) the age at which drugs are first used, and (g) how local drug use data compare to national data. In the past fifteen years the ADAS has been given to 1.5 million students nationwide.

Accessing Large National Databases

Large national databases provide information on broad trends and patterns to help direct local efforts. For example, with little effort, it is now possible to access and link to national and regional databases to compare and contrast district, state, and national data. Exploration of these databases has the advantage of providing models for evaluation and research efforts, as well as providing current data to incorporate into local school behavioral health programs.

Advancements in technology have provided school practitioners, evaluators, and researchers with major tools to assess and monitor student health behaviors (Bennington, Gay, & Jones, 1999; Van Horn, 2002). This is not to say that districts need to (a) write large technology grants, (b) buy expensive database packages with its accompanying training, technical assistance, or reports outputs, or (c) hire expensive information development consultants to integrate the databases and create the designated queries or data analysis.

Most of the databases are user-friendly and will walk users through the steps to explore and use the databases. Exploring databases can give school personnel a comprehensive view of how data is identified, collected, analyzed, and reported. It is equally helpful that all of the computerized databases presented have user guides that explain all aspects of data collection and analysis, and include copies of the instruments used for data collection. Even though assistance is provided and user's guides are available, becoming familiar with large databases does take time and practice.

The greatest advantage to learning about large national and local databases is not simply being able to identify, compile, analyze, and report data, or use existing data to conduct additional studies. The most valuable asset is to ultimately gain the ability to integrate existing databases into a local organization's work and thus be able to compare and contrast data. These data can add an extra dimension to discussions about behavioral health needs of students in a school district. Additionally, these data can help in making the case for program funding. Three examples of such databases follow.

1. One excellent national database to consider is the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES; *www.nces.ed.gov*), which is a part of the U.S. Department of Education. There are 15 available NCES databases. Each database with its surveys has its own homepage that can be accessed through the Survey and Programs Area listed on the NCES homepage. Two of the NCES databases most relevant to student behavioral health issues and concerns are the National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS:88) and the National Household Education Survey (NHES). The National Education Longitudinal Study, using a 1988 8th grade cohort, explores trends in data concerning critical transitions experienced by young people as they develop, attend school, and embark on their careers. Data were collected from students, parents, teachers, high school principals, and existing school records (such as high school transcripts). The National Household Education Survey is designed to address a wide range of education issues, such as early childhood education, participation in adult school safety and discipline, school readiness, and school safety and discipline.
2. The Monitoring the Future (MTF) project (*www.monitoringthefuture.org*), also widely known for some years as the National High School Senior Survey, is a repeated series of surveys in which the same segments of the population (8th, 10th, and 12th graders; college students; and young adults are presented with the same set of questions over a period of years to see how answers change over time). The survey collects data on a number of behavioral health issues and concerns. Most prominent are questions related to alcohol, tobacco, and other drug usage, violence, and safety. The 2001 MTF nationwide survey emphasis was on recent trends in the use of licit and illicit drugs. Trends in the levels of perceived risk and personal disapproval associated with each drug (which has been shown to be particularly important in explaining trends in use) are also presented, as well as trends in perceived availability of the various drugs.
3. Kids Count (*www.aecf.org/kidscount*), a project of the Annie E. Casey Foundation, is a national and state-by-state effort to track the well-

being of children in the United States. By providing policymakers and citizens with benchmarks of child well-being, Kids Count seeks to enrich local, state, and national discussions concerning ways to secure better futures for all children. It is intended to gauge the seriousness of the problems facing children, and to guide the policy trends and goals on behalf of children. At the national level, the principal activity of the initiative is the publication of the annual Kids Count Data Book, which uses the best available data to measure the educational, social, economic, and physical well-being of children state by state. There are currently ten Kids Count measures: (1) percent of low-birth-weight babies; (2) infant mortality rate; (3) child death rate; (4) rate of teen deaths by accident, homicide, and suicide; (5) teen birth rate; (6) percent of children living with parents who do not have full-time, year-round employment; (7) percent of teens who are high school dropouts; (8) percent of teens not attending school and not working; (9) percent of children in poverty; and (10) percent of families with children headed by a single parent. The foundation also funds a national network of state-level Kids Count projects that provides a more detailed county-by-county profile of the condition of children.

HOW THESE PRACTICES HELP DELIVER QUALITY BEHAVIORAL HEALTH FOR YOUTH

These promising practices help schools and communities to deliver quality behavioral health programs for youth. The result of such collaboration is increased utilization of behavioral health programs by the general population of students, including severely impaired youth who did not previously access programs (Evans, 1999). The practices help in several ways. First, it is common practice to talk about specific concerns and problems such as depression, drugs, alcohol, anger management, conflict resolution, child abuse, trauma, bioterrorism, poverty, divorce, death, or bullying. Individual professionals (e.g. teachers, nurses, social workers, school counselors, psychologists) are trained to address specific concerns and problems. However, there is an increasing movement to take a holistic approach to addressing social, emotional, and mental health concerns, especially by federal, state, and county governments. So while individual initiatives might focus on specific issues such as depression, drug and alcohol use, or violence, they are now set in the larger context of behavioral health, thereby recognizing the comorbidity and interrelationship of problems at the individual, family, and community levels. All the promising practices take this larger view of how to meet the needs of youth.

Second, the behavioral health care system is large and complex. While a seamless system of services that is able to consistently and adequately meet student needs is ideal, the reality is otherwise. A constant worry and concern is its fragmentation (National Commission on the Role of the School and Community in Improving Adolescent Health, 1990; U.S. Surgeon General, 2000, 2001). The system reflects its institutions and organizations, service providers, and consumers, each with divergent goals, mandates, funding levels, and philosophies that can only ensure fragmentation and inconsistency. Intractable issues, conflict, and differing ideologies exacerbate the fragmentation (Emihovich & Herrington, 1998). It is a system shaped by many diverse factors rather than a single set of guiding principles. The system is comprised of many professionals, organizations, and resources addressing students' mental health needs. These practices work to make connections at the local level. Gaps in programs and services that otherwise would leave students wallowing without needed support and guidance are frequently identified and addressed in the context of a partnership. Without the schools and communities working together, such gaps in programs and services often go unrecognized or uncorrected because there is no single person or entity responsible for ensuring complete coverage.

Third, the behavioral health care system is built on a financial base from diverse sources that both reflects its structure (e.g. public, private, and voluntary) and its range of services to address children's and adolescents' health needs and concerns. At one time, funding was limited to treating a restricted number of children and adolescents. Recently, however, funding has been made increasingly available, which expands treatment opportunities as well as funding major initiatives to prevent problems and promote behavioral health among youth. While many barriers still exist, funding is now more readily available and within the reach of more schools and community organizations. One challenge for schools and communities is finding the sources of funds, as well as the procedures required to obtain the funds, which change substantially each year. Overall, day to day knowledge of current behavioral health funding sources and availability is beyond the purview of most educators, agency staff, and community members. In most cases the intricacies of funding are idiosyncratic to a particular institution and concern. Working together, communities and schools can maximize their knowledge of funding sources, networking, and political power to identify funding sources.

Fourth, for behavioral health programs, education, and other services for children and teenagers to be effective, parent and family participation is critical. It is widely accepted and supported to seek parent participation as part of an integrated approach to enhance the well-being of children and adolescents (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2000). How-

ever, parents are often concerned about privacy and the stigma related to the behavioral health issues of their children (U.S. Surgeon General, 2001). The consequence of this is that parents need to know and understand their rights. Furthermore, it adds a level of complexity previously unknown to school professionals for students' participation in behavioral health programs. Working together, schools and communities can have consistent strategies to inform parents and obtain parent consent for their child's participation in behavioral health programs. Together, the schools and community agencies can promote family, school, and agency collaborations that include ongoing dialogue, attention to how power is shared, responsible decision making, and mutual respect. Furthermore, they can support a caring, nonblaming attitude toward family. They can recognize the family as a key resource. They can recognize limits and responsibilities of families, and can offer support, understanding, and practical assistance that improves families' access to the care system (Simpson, Koroloff, Friesen, & Gae, 1999).

Finally, educators, service providers, and community members working together can advocate for systems and organizations to be accountable for the provision of high-quality, comprehensive behavioral health programs. Without such input the services may not meet students' needs or satisfaction. Likewise, the ability of individuals to assess their rights and determine their participation in the behavioral health system is endangered.

REFERENCES

Adelman, H., & Taylor, L. (2000). Promoting mental health in schools in the midst of school reform. *Journal of School Health, 70*(5), 171–178.

Akers, R. L. (1977). *Deviant behavior: A social learning approach.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self efficacy: Towards a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84,* 191–215.

Bennington, T. L., Gay, G., & Jones, M. L. W. (1999). Using multimedia records to support mixed-method evaluation. In G. Gay & T. L. Bennington (Eds.), *Information technologies in evaluation: Social, moral, epistemological, and practical implications* (pp. 59–72). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Berkowitz, B., & Wolff, T. (2000). *The spirit of the coalition.* Washington, DC: American Public Health Association.

Butterfoos, F. D., Goodman, R. M., & Wandersman, A. (1993). Community coalitions for prevention and health promotion. *Health Education Research, 8*(3), 315–330.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2000). *A coordinated school health program: The CDC eight component model of school health programs* [Online]. Available: http://www.cdc.gov/nccdphp/dash/cshpdef.htm

Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence. (n.d.). Homepage. Available: http://www.colorado.edu/cspv/

Center for Substance Abuse Prevention. (n.d.). Homepage. Available: http://www.samhsa.gov/centers/csap/modelprograms/default.htm

Cole, R., & Poe, S. (1993). *Partnership for care: Systems of care for children with serious emotional disturbances and their families.* Washington, DC: Washington Business Group on Health, Robert Wood Johnson Foundation Mental Health Services for Youth.

Communities That Care. (2002). *Five phase process* [Online]. Available: http://www.preventionscience.com/ctc/CTC.html

Community Anti-Drug Coalitions of America. (2002). Homepage. Available: http://www.cadca.org

Emihovich, C., & Herrington, C. D. (1998). *Sex, kids, and politics: Health services in schools.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Evans, S. (1999). Mental health services in schools: Utilization, effectiveness, and consent. *Clinical Psychological Review, 19*(2), 165–178.

Fertman, C. (1993). Creating successful collaborations between schools and community agencies. *Children Today, 22*(2), 32–34.

Fertman, C. (2002). Behavioral health and health education: Emerging opportunity. *American Journal of Health Education, 33*(2), 112–114.

Fertman, C., Fichter, C., Schlesinger, J., Tarasevich, S., Wald, H., & Zhang, X. (2001). Evaluating the effectiveness of student assistance programs in Pennsylvania. *Journal of Drug Education, 34*(4), 353–366.

Fertman, C., & Sobehart, H. (1994). Student wellness check: Conducting a student health survey. *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 78*(562), 73–82.

Fowler, F. J. (1997). *Public policy and school-based mental health services in Pennsylvania.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA.

Freeman, M. A., & Trabin, T. (1994). *Managed behavioral healthcare: History, models, key issues, and future course.* Rockville, MD: U.S. Center for Mental Health Services.

Hawkins, D., & Catalano, R., Jr. (1992). *Communities that care: Action for drug abuse prevention.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of delinquency.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Kaminer, Y. (2001). Alcohol and drug abuse: Adolescent substance abuse treatment: where do we go from here? *Psychiatric Services, 52,* 147–149.

Lewin Group. (2000). *Enhancing youth services.* Washington, DC: National Association of Psychiatric Health Systems.

Lourie, I. S., Stroul, B. A., & Friedman, R. M. (1998). Community-based systems of care from advocacy. In M. H. Epstein, K. Kutash, & A. J. Duchnowski (Eds.), *Outcomes for children and youth with behavioral and emotional disorders and their families: Programs and evaluation best practices* (pp. 20–30). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Meyers, J. C., & Davis, S. E. (1997). State and foundation partnerships to promote mental health system reform for children and families. In C.T. Nixon & D.A. Northrup (Eds.), *Evaluating mental health services: How do programs for children "work" in the real world* (pp. 95–116). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

National Association of Student Assistance Professionals. (2002). *State programs* [Online]. Available: http://www.nasap.org

National Commission on the Role of the School and Community in Improving Adolescent Health. (1990). *Code blue: Uniting for healthier youth.* Alexandria, VA: National Association for State Boards of Education.

Price, J. H., & Drake, J. A. (1999). Asset building: Rhetoric versus reality—a cautionary note. *Journal of School Health, 69*(6), 215–216.

Safe and Drug-Free Schools Programs. (n.d.). Homepage. Available: http://www.ed.gov/offices/OERI/ORAD/KAD/expert_panel/2001exemplary_sddfs.html

Santarcangelo, S., Bruns, E. J., & Yoe, J. T. (1998). New directions: evaluating Vermont's statewide model of individualized care. In M. H. Epstein, K. Kutash, & A. J. Duchnowski (Eds.), *Outcomes for children and youth with behavioral and emotional disorders and their families: Programs and evaluation best practices* (pp. 117–140). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Simpson, J. S., Koroloff, N., Friesen, B. F., & Gae, J. (1999). *Promising practices in family–provider collaborations. Systems of care: Promising practices in children's mental health* (Vol. 2). Washington, DC: Center for Effective Collaborations and Practice, American Institute for Research.

U.S. Department of Education. (1998). *Non-regulatory guidance for implementing the SDFSCA principles of effectiveness* [Online]. Available: http://www.ed.gov/offices/OESE/SDFS/

U.S. Surgeon General. (2000). *Mental health: A report of the Surgeon General* [Online]. Available: http://www.surgeongeneral.gov/library/mental/home.html

U.S. Surgeon General. (2001). *U.S. public health service report of the Surgeon General's conference on children's mental health: A national action agenda* [Online]. Available: http://www.surgeongeneral.gov/cmh/childreport.htm

VanDenBerg, E. (1993). Integration of individualized mental health services into the system of care for children and adolescents. *Administrative Policy in Mental Health, 20,* 247–257.

Van Horn, R. (2002, February). Internet2 and the K20 initiative. *Phi Delta Kappan, 83*(6), 481–482.

Weist, M. (1997). Expanded school mental health services: A national movement in progress. *Advances in Clinical Child Psychology, 19,* 319–352.

Weist, M. (2001). Toward a public mental health promotion and intervention system for youth. *Journal of School Health, 71*(3), 101–104.

CHAPTER 6

SCHOOL–BUSINESS PARTNERSHIPS

Mary Ann Burke

Schools that partner with community businesses are more effective in responding to the needs of the students (Oakes, Quartz, Ryan, & Lipton, 2000). In order to create results-focused and long-term partnerships with community businesses, schools must clearly communicate their intent for forming the partnership. When schools connect with community businesses, students and their families are able to access a variety of support services. School–business partnerships support student achievement by providing internships, job shadowing, and other collaborative school-to-work programs (Burke, Baca, Picus, and Jones, 2002).

School–business partnerships establish environments of trust that contribute to the overall academic achievement of students (Burke & Picus, 2001). To ensure this high level of trust among stakeholders, the school's administrators and teachers demonstrate caring attitudes toward the students (Valenzuela, 1999). In addition to forming an initial project partnership, schools and business community stakeholders build institutional relationships that transcend the initial project by making specific plans for the expansion and development of the school–business partnership.

Promising Practices to Connect Schools With the Community, pages 95–104
Copyright © 2002 by Information Age Publishing
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.

CREATING A WELCOMING ENVIRONMENT FOR SCHOOL–BUSINESS PARTNERSHIPS

The manner in which school staff members communicate with business leaders impacts the school's ability to build effective partnerships (Schmitt & Tracy, 1996). Developing meaningful partnerships requires that the school's administrators and teachers provide a welcoming environment for the businesses. This environment must also support the primary goal of educating its students (Burke et al., 2002). To build a partnership with community businesses, schools have to get to know local business leaders, create a public relations effort, and develop a school–business partnership volunteer program (Burke & Picus, 2001; Fiore, 2002).

TYPES OF BUSINESS PARTNERSHIPS

As businesses engage in school–business partnerships, they look for benefits that will improve their productivity and profit margin (Lankard, 1995). However, school–business partnerships must not require students to become engaged in commercial advertising activities (Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 2002).

School–business partnerships that are based on sound principles contribute to high-quality education (Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 2002). In recent years, the increase of school-business partnerships has expanded to include innovative service delivery models. For example, the Rochester Initiative organized a cooperative educational effort among local schools, businesses, and the community (Whitmore, 1988). In one school–business partnership, Eastman Kodak sent scientists to the classrooms to help teach science, mathematics, and computer skills at an elementary school. In other cases, businesses provide academic tutoring services, computer literacy training, and job skill development (Burke, 2002). Funding for these programs is provided by business sponsorships. As school–business partnerships expand, school districts and states must focus on how to create system-wide approaches for fostering school–business partnerships.

Business and Technology in the School

School–business partnerships serve as critical links in preparing students for future workplace opportunities (Burke & Picus, 2001). School–business partnerships have increased in recent years with curricula that include experiential learning, expanded content, and real-world expo-

sure (Schmitt & Tracy, 1996). One of the most important topics that is taught by business volunteers in the classroom is technology. School–business partnerships expose teachers to new technologies and help teachers transfer technical work experiences into the classroom.

Technology in the classroom plays a significant role in students' achievement when it is appropriately introduced and used (Otterbourg, 1998). Becoming computer literate is critical for future job placement and development (Burke & Picus, 2001). Business volunteers assist students in developing needed computer skills by teaching arts, music, and household finance with computers (Burke & Picus, 2001; Otterbourg, 1998).

Tutoring Students for Academic Achievement

Businesses also provide volunteer tutors to the schools. Tutoring is an effective activity that increases students' academic achievement. Tutoring sessions with planned content and structured delivery result in increased academic achievement for students. The best tutoring programs have well-prepared instructors, systematic learning activities, flexible schedules, and appropriate tasks that match the students' performance abilities (Hoffman, 1997).

Bloom (1986) found that the average tutored student outperformed 98% of the students in conventional classes. Bloom's research also demonstrated that most students have the potential to reach high levels of learning when they are properly supported.

Mentoring Students for Career Development

Mentoring by business volunteers is effective (Lee, 1992). Business mentors share personal experiences and information for achieving success with a mentee. This support enables the mentee to follow in the mentor's footsteps (Cronenwett, Vansickle, & Walker, 1996). While mentoring programs are diverse, their essential component is the development of a personalized relationship between an adult and a youth that continues over time. The relationship is focused on the student's personal development, academic performance, self-esteem, and career decision making (Cronenwett et al., 1996). The mentor provides access to the values, customs, resources, and individuals representing various occupations and careers (Bernard, 1992). Mentors also encourage students to complete high school, obtain occupational training, prepare for college education, and pursue personal goals (Cronenwett et al., 1996). According to Dr. Susan Weinberger of the Mentor Consulting Group, effective school–business mentoring programs

produce students that have positive self-esteem, react appropriately to stressful situations, and communicate effectively. The mentor reinforces the student's academic and personal growth by being a positive role model.

The Mentoring Center (1996) has classified mentoring relationships into four models of complexity: soft, medium, hard and hard core. Soft mentoring provides companionships, academic tutoring, and career guidance. Medium mentoring adds self-esteem–building activities to the model. Hard mentoring adds conflict resolution, parent education, and responsibility training. Finally, hard core mentoring adds self-respect activities, cultural awareness, respect for authorities, and respect for the law to the model.

Sherk (1998) defines group mentoring as a process between one or more adult mentors and a group of mentees, where the adults provide consistent support, guidance, and help to the students. Group mentoring programs have certain advantages. First, they expand sooner because fewer mentors are required to support a program. Second, mentors support each other. Third, the mentoring teams more easily resolve conflict and problems.

In 1996–97, the California Mentor Initiative provided 77 academic mentoring grants to 149 schools (State of California Governor's Office of Child Development and Education, 1998). Findings indicate that these mentoring programs improved student performance in the areas of grade point average, standardized tests, attendance, and discipline. Caring, one-to-one mentoring relationships offer a sense of belonging and security for youth (Bernard, 1992; Valenzuela, 1999). Without these types of relationships, youths hesitate to take the risks that conventional success requires and tend to become more impulsive in their decision making (Bernard, 1992). Effective business mentors provide personalized access to resources. Bernard found that mentors are typically viewed as guardian angels that provide daily guidance and support.

Junior Achievement volunteers deliver school-based business and economic tutoring and mentoring programs to K–12 students. In its evaluation of the programs, the Western Institute for Research in Education found that students participating in the elementary school program over four years acquired significantly more economics and business knowledge than those participating in the Junior Achievement program for the first time in grade 4 (Junior Achievement, 1997). Middle school students scored significantly higher on objective-reference tests than their nonparticipating peers. High school students participating in the program acquired a sense of personal, economic, and business empowerment. The teachers credited the volunteers for bringing an outside business perspective into the classroom and serving as positive role models for the students.

Job Shadowing and Workplace Internships

The National School-to-Work Office (1995) describes job shadowing as follows: "Typically as part of career exploration activities in early high school, a student follows an employee for one or more days to learn about a particular occupation or industry. Job shadowing is intended to help students hone their career objectives and select a career major for the latter part of high school" (p. 1).

Job shadowing and internships increase student career opportunities by helping students connect what they learn in the classroom with specific workplace skills; this prepares them for future careers and educational training (Fitzgerald, 1997). Students acquire workforce preparation through career fairs, mock interviews, and apprenticeships (Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 2002; Schmitt and Tracy, 1996).

Effective school-business partnerships set timelines for program development and result in the following student outcomes: (Ben-Avie, Haynes, & Joyner, 1999; Burke et al., 2002; Fitzgerald, 1997):

1. Students gain an understanding of what is required for high-skill careers.
2. Students gain skills for future employment.
3. Students participate in student apprenticeships and internships for career exploration.
4. Businesses fund college educational expenses.
5. Students meet with business leaders and participate in business conferences.
6. Students assist industry leaders in marketing and creating products.

School-to-work programs create new opportunities for students' professional growth and provide access to various vocational education programs (Burke et al., 2002). Business support services include using student labor for manufacturing, printing, editing, mailing, accounting, financial services, inventory control, health services, academic tutoring services, child care, and youth development activities (Burke et al., 2002).

Local chambers of commerce employ high school students to conduct economic surveys. The chambers of commerce also facilitate placement of students into local businesses (Blakely, 1997; Fitzgerald, 1997).

Businesses benefit from school–business partnerships because they gain a reliable source of trained employees and they improve their public image (Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 2002; Fitzgerald, 1997; Schmitt & Tracy, 1996).

EVALUATION STRATEGIES

When designing evaluation instruments, the school–business partnership development team considers the school's ability to track and evaluate data (Burke et al., 2002). Process evaluations enable any program to describe whom it serves and what services it provides (The Interprofessional Education Consortium, 2001). Outcome evaluations examine the results of a program's efforts and identify changes in behaviors, attitudes, knowledge, and understanding. An outcome or desired result is the sense of well-being for students. An outcome-based evaluation shifts the focus of the evaluation from project process to project outcomes (the program's impact on student quality of life).

Effective evaluation instruments include interviews, focus groups, observations, journal documentation, log-in sheets, surveys, and questionnaires that measure changes in behavior, academic performance, absences, counseling referrals, crime statistics, and student retention (Burke et al., 2002). Increased levels of knowledge, attitudes, and understanding are measured through surveys and questionnaires. Behavior checklists, journal entries, and reflections measure behavior outcomes (Burke et al., 2002).

Results-based decision making consists of developing a set of results and indicators, creating a baseline for each indicator; finding the causes for the baseline data, assembling partners who support change, and identifying strategies that work (Foundation Consortium, 2000). Effective partnerships are flexible, responsive, and provide practical learning experiences for the students.

SCHOOL–BUSINESS PARTNERSHIP PUBLIC RELATIONS

An effective public relations program contributes to the sustainability of a school–business partnership by demonstrating the passion of the program's founders to support the mission (Jordan-Davis, 1999). School–business public relations require the development of alliances with media sources, business leaders, and community leaders (Burke et al., 2002). Reaching the news media requires communication with newspapers, magazines, wire services, television, radio, and public affairs programs (Corporation for National Service, 1997). Each type of media has unique characteristics that are important to understand.

Community fairs help schools develop and enhance relationships with business–community stakeholders. Effective strategies for planning community fairs include inviting stakeholders, sponsoring guest speakers, and creating educational forums (Burke et al., 2002). Group events are supported by students conducting various fundraising activities. Community public

service groups and businesses provide presentations and demonstrations of services and activities. For maximum effectiveness, neighboring communities and media are invited to participate. Connecting the events to holiday and cultural celebrations increases public awareness and interest.

Recognition activities provide another avenue of promotion. The school–business stakeholders are notified when a student has received recognition, the school has received a notable donation, or a business volunteer has provided a significant contribution to the school community (Burke et al., 2002). Recognition activities include events that provide awards to students, school employees, or businesses that help make the school–business partnership a success.

To determine which activities will best promote the school–business partnership, the school's leadership team identifies its target audience, defines the specific program components that increase awareness, and determines how to build school–business support. Timelines are established with specific goals, opportunities, and limitations. Each media strategy considers who will be interested in the story, which media outlets will reach targeted groups, and how a school's leadership team will sell the story (Corporation for National Service, 1997). Understanding the different types of media requires different techniques and communication strategies (Fiore, 2002). In order to sustain school-business partnerships, school leadership teams must share their passion.

SUSTAINING AND EXPANDING COLLABORATIVE PARTNERSHIPS

The ability to sustain a program is fundamental to good program management (Jordan-Davis, 1999). Sustaining and expanding school–business partnerships requires that each program part be connected to a system of community resources and services. Informed stakeholders who support and are committed to matching services to needs will enhance program sustainability (Hailman, 1999). Within the school community, there are common goals that help students and their families academically. This contributes to the greater good of the school and community. With this vision, schools create and sustain long term partnerships by:

1. Building trusting relationships that keep the partnership together regardless of political and jurisdictional issues.
2. Sustaining partnerships by institutionalizing outcomes and changed behavior beyond the initial project.
3. Developing a rationale and benefit statement for each stakeholder group.

4. Identifying key agencies and leaders who will inspire new and expanded program delivery.
5. Creating a shared vision to ensure long-term, focused, and results-oriented outcomes.
6. Leveraging resources for added success. (Burke et al., 2002; Burke & Picus, 2001; Sweeny, Schenirer, & Lefkovitz, 2001)

SCHOOL–BUSINESS PARTNERSHIP EXAMPLES

Successful school–business partnerships of varying magnitudes exist all across the country. Partnering businesses range from large aerospace corporations to small family businesses. The Boeing Company offers several programs that include sending engineers into schools to encourage students to pursue technical programs. Boeing also provides various programs that recruit technical talent from local high schools. Northrop company engineers go to local schools to teach technical skills. Northrop also gives summer internships to high school seniors. Bell South of Alabama has a job-shadowing program in which Bell South volunteers introduce students to the work world. The Raytheon Corporation gives computers to students that they can take home. This helps students and families learn computer skills. AmeriCorps sends engineers into middle schools to teach mathematics to seventh and eighth graders. Winchell Donuts and Le Brea Bakery in California provide baked goods for local school events. All of these school–business partnerships prepare students to become the next generation of skilled workers in America.

CONCLUSION

School–business partnerships provide practical and varied educational experiences that add an important extra dimension to students' learning experiences. When schools form effective partnerships with businesses, both groups work together to meet the practical and academic needs of the students. Schools should study the many successful school–business partnerships across the country and use the best ideas from each to build their own powerful school–business partnership.

REFERENCES

Bernard, B. (1992). *Drug-free schools and communities, mentoring programs for urban youth: Handle with care.* Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

Blakely, E. J. (1997). A new role for education in economic development: Tomorrow's economy today. *Education and Urban Society, 29*(4), 509–523.

Bloom, B. S. (1986). A summary of recent research. *Principal,* 6–10.

Burke, M. A. (2002). *Simplified grantwriting.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Burke, M. A., Baca, R., Picus, L. O., & Jones, C. E. (2002). *Leveraging resources for student success: How school leaders build equity.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Burke, M. A., & Picus, L. O. (2001). *Developing community-empowered schools.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Clearinghouse on Educational on Educational Management. (2002). *Policy report—business partnerships with schools, guidelines for school–business partnerships* [Online].Available: HTTP://eric.uoregon.edu/publications/policy_reports/business_partnerships/guidelines.html

Corporation for National Service. (1997). *A guide to working with the media.* Washington, DC: Author.

Cronenwett, S., Vansickle, M., & Walker, F. (1996). *Mentoring handbook.* Sacramento, CA: Resource Center Mentor Program, State of California Alcohol and Drug Programs.

Fiore, D. J. (2002). *School community relations.* Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.

Fitzgerald, J. (1997). Linking school-to-work programs to community economic development in urban schools. *Urban Education, 32*(4), 489–511.

Foundation Consortium. (2000). *What works policy brief: Reforming finance/financing reform for family and children's services.* Sacramento, CA: Foundation Consortium.

Hailman, S. (1999). Building sustainability into your program. *The Resource Connection, 4*(2), 1–14.

Hoffman, S. T. (1997). *Evidence that tutoring works.* Washington, DC: United States Department of Education.

The Interprofessional Education Consortium. (2001). *Evaluating interprofessional education programs.* San Francisco: Stuart Foundation.

Jordan-Davis, J. (1999). Sustainability: A way of being. *The Resource Connection, 4*(2), 2–3.

Junior Achievement Inc. (1997). *The bottom line: Junior Achievement delivers on economic and business education.* Santa Clara, CA: Author.

Lankard, B. A. (1995). Business/education partnerships. *ERIC Digest, 156,* 1–4. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 383856)

Lee, C. U. (1992). *A guide to evaluation strategies for mentoring programs and the mentoring center.* Berkeley: University of California, Institute of Urban and Regional Development.

National School-to-Work Office. (1995). Homepage [Online]. Available: http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/envrnmnt/stw/sw6shad.htm

Oakes, J., Quartz, K. H., Ryan, S., & Lipton, M. (2000). *Becoming good American schools: The struggle for civic virtue in education reform.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Otterbourg, S. D. (1998) *Using technology to strengthen employee and family involvement in education* [Online]. Available: http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/envrnmnt/stw/sw6shad.htm

Schmitt, D. M., & Tracy, J. C. (1996). *Gaining support for your school: Strategies for community involvement.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Sherk, J. (1998). *Group mentoring.* Unpublished manuscript.

State of California Governor's Office of Child Development and Education. (1998). *Academic volunteer and mentor service program annual report to the legislature fiscal year 1996–97.* Sacramento, CA: Author.

Sweeny, J., Schenirer, J., & Lefkovitz, B. (2001). Developing results-based school/community partnerships. *Journal for the Community Approach, 2*(1), 4–8.

U. S. Department of Education. (1994). *Strong families, strong schools: Building community partnerships for learning.* Washington, DC: Author.

Valenzuela, A. (1999). *Subtractive schooling: U.S.-Mexican youth and the politics of caring.* Albany: State University of New York Press.

Whitmore, K. R. (1988). *The Rochester initiative.* Rochester, NY: Eastman Kodak Company.

CHAPTER 7

COMMUNITY MUSEUMS SUPPORT SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Lorrie Beaumont

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the world of informal education to classroom teachers and administrators and to illustrate the myriad of ways that museums have become partners with schools in the education of children from preschool through high school. As a member of both the informal and formal education cultures, it is one of my goals to help the two understand and learn from each other in the joint effort of giving children the best educational opportunities possible. The term "museum" shall be used rather generically in this chapter to refer to informal education institutions including children's museums, arboreta/gardens, zoos, aquaria, and museums of history, science, and art.

Schools are reaching out to their communities for support and to form new partnerships with parents and businesses. Museums are a part of those communities and are reaching back to the schools. They desire to introduce schools to their vast resources, including exhibits and collections, and should introduce them to teaching strategies using objects and discovery learning. Museums have been able to benefit from their unique environments and experience. They want to share that with children, parents, teachers, and schools. In turn, schools need to be willing to reach beyond

Promising Practices to Connect Schools With the Community, pages 105–118
Copyright © 2002 by Information Age Publishing
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.

the four walls of their classrooms to the wider array of resources a museum can provide. According to Munley (1991), museums need to recognize their responsibility in educating children. Until stronger partnerships are formed at the local level, all members of the education community will have shirked their responsibility to give children what they need and deserve, that is, all of the resources and best learning environments that a community can provide.

There are a variety of ways in which museums are reaching out to schools in their communities. If we were to draw a continuum we might put field trips at one end and museum schools at the other. Most of what this chapter will address are the collaborations/partnerships that fall somewhere between these two extremes. Museums now provide schools with a wealth of curriculum support on a variety of appropriate topics in subject areas such as history, science, math, or art. In some cases, museum educators travel to schools and bring exhibits for children to explore in their classrooms. Other museum educators present large-scale assembly-type programs to the entire school. More recently museums have developed intriguing websites for teachers, where students can access images of the museums' collections or talk to an expert, and teachers can download fully developed lesson plans appropriate to their subject area. Examples of several of these successful programs will be discussed in this chapter, as well as ways in which museums are providing teachers with professional development opportunities. The goal in writing this chapter is to demonstrate to the reader that there is much more to a museum than just taking a class field trip.

MAJOR SHIFTS IN SCHOOL–MUSEUM RELATIONSHIPS

In the 1960s, as new tax benefits were offered to institutions that could prove they were educational, museums began to shift their priority to educating the public about their collections. During the same decade, in order to dispel the myth that museums catered to an elite audience, museums began to focus their efforts on developing exhibits and programs to serve diverse populations. This lead to an increase in collaborations between museums and schools (Lehman & Igoe, 1981; Price, DiRocco, & Lewis, 1981; Stone, 1986).

During the 1980s and 1990s the American Association of Museums organized two task forces to explore museums' preparedness for the coming of the 21st century. The following two reports had a major impact on the direction of museums in regard to their educational missions: Museums for a New Century (Commission on Museums for a New Century, 1984) and Excellence and Equity (American Association of Museums, 1992).

In Museums for a New Century it was revealed that museums had not yet realized their educational potential and would need to reorganize and reprioritize their organizations if they were to do so. Some of the most salient recommendations included: redefine museum–school partnerships, integrate museum education into the school curricula, integrate museum education throughout the entire organization, conduct research in museum learning, and create both local and national dialogues about museum school partnerships. This report lead to the formation of a task force that after two years published the report "Excellence and Equity," which called for museums to redefine museum education and make it the core of every museum's mission.

In 1992 the American Association of Museums identified three deficiencies in museum education: (a) a limited number of model educational programs, (b) an absence of professional literature, and (c) lack of contact with the broader field of education, including schools.

In 1994 the Institute for Museum and Library Services (IMLS) began a three-year program to encourage museum-school partnerships, involving 82,000 students, 228 schools, and 82 museums. IMLS published "True Needs, True Partners," a booklet that profiled 15 museum–school partnerships and provided firsthand experiences and recommendations from successful partnerships. During this three-year period, museums around the country were surveyed to determine the range of educational activities museums were offering our nation's schools. The results of this survey provided the baseline statistical information that confirmed that museums and schools are working together as partners to better educate students of all grade levels.

The most frequently identified museum education activity reported by the survey was the guided field trip, as one might expect. Guided field trips imply that they are led by a museum educator or volunteer and are generally facilitated. Most museums also offer self-guided field trips where teachers can bring their students and chaperones to a museum and let them explore on their own. For nine years, the Field Museum of Natural History in Chicago worked with over 450 inservice and preservice teachers to improve their field trip experience. *Teach the Mind, Touch the Spirit* (Voris, Sedzielarz, & Blackmon, 1986), a book the museum published, was a result of that work. It introduced teachers to the wide variety of resources a museum had to offer and tried to change teachers' way of thinking about museums as nothing more than a "destination." It explained the various parts of the field trip experience so that planning would begin in the classroom long before the students walked into the museum. In many museums, research continues to investigate ways to help teachers have a more productive field trip and change their way of looking at museums.

Another important survey was conducted in 1996 by Inverness Research Associates for the Association of Science and Technology Centers. It revealed that approximately 150,000 teachers are engaged in teacher education events led by informal science education institutions. Of these teachers, about 27,500 participated in extensive professional development experiences through these institutions. The survey also revealed that 20% of all U.S. elementary school teachers who engage each year in science-focused professional development activities do so at science centers or museums.

EDUCATIONAL THEORY BEHIND MUSEUM EDUCATION

Museum charters identify education as one of their roles as far back as the 1870s (Lehman & Igoe, 1981). However, most of that education happened within the walls of the institution, and it was through an interaction of visitors with artifacts. This type of learning has been referred to as object-based, by which the learner uncovers meaning through shared experience of objects or artifacts. This reflects the approach of many traditional museums. However, more recently, science museums, and especially children's museums, have begun to emphasize active participation in learning through exhibits that can be explored and manipulated, "played with" if you will. In museum literature, this is referred to as experience-based learning (Hamilton, 1994).

This emphasis on the learner being an active participant can be traced as far back as the work of Maria Montessori (1912), John Dewey (1938), and Jean Piaget (1951). Montessori recognized that children needed to touch objects and learn through self-directed authentic experiences. Montessori's use of developmentally appropriate manipulatives with young students had a direct influence on museums' decisions to remove some of their artifacts from cases and place them directly in the hands of children. Dewey also stressed the importance of situating learning in experience with concrete objects. Piaget's work stressed the importance of children acting on their environment to assimilate or accommodate new information. Bruner (1966) echoed the ideas of Piaget and advocated approaches to learning that allowed children to guide their own learning and construct their own meaning. The constructivist movement, which is alive and well in schools today, is a perfect match to the educational activities that are currently being offered by museums of all kinds. Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of education can be directly applied to much of the learning that takes place in museums. Vygotsky (1978) stresses the importance of personal interaction to help the young learner move through their zone of proximal development. Museums are beginning to take into account the

importance of this interaction as they develop and design their exhibits and programs.

Most recently, Howard Gardner (1991), best known in educational circles for his theory of multiple intelligences, has challenged schools and museums to combine the learning that takes place in experience-based museums with the rigor and structure of the cognitive apprenticeship (Rogoff, 1990). Gardner's work has driven the further development of museum and school collaborations.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR SUCCESSFUL PARTNERSHIP

Expectations

In creating programs for schools, museums have certain expectations. However, schools also have expectations of the museum program that may conflict with museums' expectations. It is imperative that both partners explore these expectations before the program is implemented. A museum's goals must be meaningful to the school. They must address academic standards and cover subjects that are relevant to the school's existing curriculum. Not all museum programs will fit all schools. For instance, an extensive school garden project was offered in a depressed urban school in the Midwest. As lovely as the garden was, its purpose was not to be decorative, but rather to enrich the school's science curriculum. Sadly, the conditions in this neighborhood did not allow for the students to be outside during the school day. They were not allowed on the playground or even in front of the school where the garden was planted. The only time students went out into their garden was once a year, in the spring, when the partnering museum came to plant with them. This is an example of a school that was not appropriate for the program being offered by the museum. In another case, an Internet-based program was offered to a school that was non–English-speaking and noncomputer literate. The school received their first computers a month before the program was implemented in the school. The students had little to no experience with the computers and virtually no experience with the Internet, not to mention the language challenges. The program was excellent but the school was not a good match for it. Unfortunately, those students could not be successful in using that resource, and the program would seem to have failed.

One way museums have tried to circumvent this difficulty of meeting each schools' expectations is by having teacher advisory groups/committees early in the program's development so that teachers can give input from the beginning and help the museum to better understand their culture and the various challenges teachers face. For instance, museums may

ask why teachers all want to schedule field trips at the same time of the year. They may ask why teachers don't read their previsit packets or send in their post-visit evaluations.

Standards and Standardized Testing

Museums have come to accept the fact that schools are committed to standards and standardized testing. This has been difficult because museums look at learning as being much more informal and unique to the learner. The pressures schools are under to raise standardized test scores require them to dedicate a great portion of their time to preparing students for tests. This usually causes conflicts for museums that want schools to devote a large chunk of time to participating in museum programs. They ask that teachers come to meetings, give written feedback, pilot programs, prepare their students for a program, participate with their students, and have time to reflect and follow up after the program has ended. In my evaluation work, I have consistently heard from teachers that they don't have enough time to fully engage in museum programs, even though they think they are well managed and useful to the students.

Museums have worked hard to match their programs to local, state, and national frameworks, standards, and goals. In fact, museums have been at the forefront of many new educational paradigms. Since new standards advocate hands-on, problem-based learning (especially when incorporating technology), museums are already taking the lead because they have been providing such programs for a long time. Teachers exploring museum programs do not have to guess which programs will be appropriate. Many museums list the standards their programs meet so teachers can easily select appropriate programs that will meet their school's criteria. Programs can easily fit into existing lesson plans.

The Importance of Relationship

Forming a strong relationship with the partnering institution is important for both museums and schools. This requires that both partners work to understand the other's culture. Informal and formal education institutions can work toward a common goal even if they generally go about it differently. Each can learn from the other. In the best-case scenario, a museum will continue to provide programming for a school for many years based on the strong relationship they form in the beginning. The best example of the power of relationship comes from a partnership between a children's museum and an elementary school district. A children's

museum wanted to pilot a new program in a particular school district. It looked interesting to the schools; however, they were not convinced that the topic of engineering technology fit into their elementary curricula. The program was piloted for several years and revised based on the schools' feedback. Ultimately the district decided to rewrite third-grade curriculum to incorporate engineering technology. The museum program became a part of every third grader's experience and has continued to be for nearly 10 years. The relationship and time the museum took with this school district had a very large impact on this becoming a long-term partnership.

There is general agreement among museums that the most effective partnerships with schools are long-term interactions, which consist of at least five days of extended contact with extensive follow-up.

Education Staff

It is important for classroom teachers to recognize that most museums have education departments that are often staffed by former classroom teachers and administrators. These individuals understand the language of education and can more easily communicate the role of a museum in a teacher's classroom. This is one of the most often cited concerns of museum educators, that classroom teachers do not think they are capable or understand education. In fact, museum education staff are keenly aware of the school schedules, the flow of the calendar year, when testing is occurring, when students are most motivated to learn, and so on. Many classroom teachers are not aware of this fact and expect all museum staff to be a type of exhibit curator that only knows their particular content area. This is certainly no longer the case.

PROMISING PRACTICES FOR TEACHERS

In the following section I showcase some of the many interesting opportunities being offered for teachers around the country. Interestingly, because of museums on the Web, teachers no longer have to choose only their local museums to partner with. They can "virtually" partner with a museum anywhere in the world. I begin with examples of professional development for teachers.

Professional Development

Museums have responded to school reform issues with programs that are not only clearly aligned with the state and local standards but that also provide professional development or graduate credit. The Institute for Museum and Library Services (IMLS) invited museums to strengthen their relationship with schools through these efforts. The following examples show the range of opportunities museums offer for teachers' professional development.

The following profile demonstrates the breadth of opportunities being offered by just one museum. The Children's Museum of Boston serves as an example of the kinds of programs being offered by many other museums around the country. The Harcourt Teacher Leadership Center (HTLC) offers professional development that is approved for recertification by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts Department of Education and Office for Children. Massachusetts Professional Development Points are awarded and certificates are provided. Below are some of the opportunities the Children's Museum of Boston offers teachers.

1. *Seminars.* Through participatory one-day workshops, teachers learn from content specialists, museum staff, and each other. Each seminar provides exciting, in-depth information; up-to-date teaching methods; innovative activities you can use right away in your classroom; resource packets that support state frameworks; and opportunities for teacher-to-teacher sharing.
2. *Institutes.* Each year educators are given the opportunity to immerse themselves thoroughly in a subject area through a variety of summer institutes. Institutes may last a day or week and sometimes involve travel to experience a culture firsthand. One example is the Harvard East Asian Outreach Program. This program brings together specialists in East Asian Studies and education to promote better understanding of Japan and China. Offerings include educator seminars, classroom kits, family festivals, and more. The Ancient China seminar introduces the archaeology of ancient China. A professor from Boston University presents an academic slide lecture in the morning. In the afternoon, the Museum's East Asian Program staff leads seminar participants through hands-on activities from the museum's Ancient China teacher's kit. This program will help teachers meet the MA social studies and foreign language standards. "Mayan Civilizations, Ancient and Modern" is an interactive presentation that provides teachers with information about Mayan history and culture and explores the Mayan's survival in today's society. Hands-on activities and books appropriate for grades 1–6 are shared. This institute is

taught by a teacher from El Salvador, a country with a strong Mayan presence. The Teaching Thanksgiving institute suggests new ways to present the concept of Thanksgiving. Teachers explore the differences between the many seasonal thanksgiving ceremonies of the Wampanoag, the Indians who met the Pilgrims, and the national holiday now known as Thanksgiving. This institute is co-taught by Wampanoag educators and the Children's Museum staff.

3. *Workshops.* An informal workshop titled "Intro to the Internet for Teachers" helps teachers to figure out how to find the best websites for use in the classroom, when to use a search engine, when to use web directories, how to evaluate a website, where to find ready-made activities or lesson plans, and an introduction to the Children's Museum's Teacher-to-Teacher Online Discussion Forum. The workshop "Teaching with Objects" shows teachers how best to use objects in the classroom. From museum artifacts to household items brought in by students, objects can be used to unlock multiple intelligence, engage students in interactive learning, and make any subject come alive. This mini-workshop models effective strategies for teaching with objects and introduces resources from the Children's Museum that can be used in the classroom.

Project TRIPS: Bronx Zoo

The Teaching Revitalized through Informal Programs in Science project, funded by the National Science Foundation and initiated by the Bronx Zoo, teams up classroom teachers with informal science educators in a professional development program. It begins with a 12-day Science Leadership Training Institute for informal science educators, teachers, and school administrators from across the country who come together to form a team. The institute prepares the participants to plan and implement joint professional development programs for middle school teachers, which include new curricula and methods for teaching life science. A follow-up program provides technical assistance and ongoing support through newsletters, chat rooms, videoconferencing, phone hotlines, and bulletin boards. A final key component to Project TRIPS is a three-day Reflective Study Workshop where teams showcase their work conducted over the school year.

The Summer Science Institute: Museum of Science and Industry

The Summer Science Institute (SSI) was a pilot program for Chicago public school teachers. Developed in partnership with the Teachers Academy for Mathematics and Science (TAMS), the Museum of Science and Industry sought to establish a model teacher-training program that would use local resources to improve science teaching and student learning. SSI had the following objectives:

1. Teachers will increase their confidence and interest in teaching science.
2. Teachers will learn new instructional strategies for teaching science.
3. Teachers will use a variety of local and national resources to aid in student learning of science.
4. Teachers will help students relate science learning to their own lives and to potential employment paths.

The program was comprised of seven primary components: (1) presessions, (2) a two-week institute, (3) post-sessions, (4) professional conferences, (5) curriculum units, (6) classroom science fairs, and (7) follow-up support of teachers by museum staff.

There are two changes on the horizon in regard to professional development opportunities for teachers. In the not-too-distant future museums will be able to offer training modules on the Internet so teachers won't have to take time off to travel to the museum for training. Also, there will be more opportunities for preservice teachers to receive training through methods classes that partner with museums. According to a 1996 Association of Science and Technology Center survey, 10,000 education students per year were engaged in preservice training activities with informal science education institutions. That number has likely risen significantly since 1996, and will continue to do so in the future.

SCHOOLS AND MUSEUMS ON THE INTERNET

The Illinois Board of Education

The Illinois Board of Education funded a program called Museums in the Classroom (MIC) that matched schools and museums so they could develop online, interactive curriculum projects that utilized the unique resources and capabilities of Illinois museums. Through the use of technology and telecommunications, learning was extended beyond the four walls

of the classroom, allowing students access to the wealth of history, artifacts, and fine art in Illinois' museums. Museums were able to share via the Internet those collections that can be used effectively in Illinois classrooms. (More information about this program can be found at their website: www.isbe.net/learn-technology)

Brooklyn Museums

Brooklyn Expedition is an online adventure that takes children on a virtual tour of the exhibitions and collections of the Brooklyn Children's Museum, the Brooklyn Museum of Art, and the Brooklyn Public library. The program also introduces the user to online research tools and encourages participants to visit the institutions to conduct additional research with exhibits, collections, and books.

The Brooklyn Expedition is organized around content themes that users can explore by looking at museum objects and library materials as presented on the website, and through directed visits to the three institutions. The first theme to be introduced was "Structures," a broad-ranging inquiry introducing the connections between animal skeletons and homes, architecture, art, and information cataloging systems. Building on lessons learned from the creation of Structures, the team next developed the theme of Latin America, which explores the art and cultures of Mexico and Central and South America, from past to present. (For more information see http://www.brooklynexpedition.org)

DuPage Children's Museum, Illinois

Kids Design Network (KDN) was conceived by DuPage Children's Museum as an Internet-based children's design technology learning environment. Emphasizing creative, nongender-biased, tool-based, problem-solving challenges, it featured an online professional engineer to support the children's designs and buildings. Students communicated with the engineer during scheduled sessions in real time. The original pilot goals for KDN stated that student engineers would ask questions, use computers, and work with teachers, parents, other students, and the online engineer to solve problems. KDN won the Gold Muse Award for Programs Emphasizing Two-way Communication from the American Association of Museums (AAM). Muse awards are given to recognize media projects produced by museums. These include films, videos, websites, CD-ROMs, and interactive experiences on the museum floor. (The program can be accessed at the museum's website at www.dupagechildrensmuseum.org)

Online Community: Teachers and Museums

Arts Ed Net Talk at The Getty, an online community of teachers and learners, provides an opportunity for educators and students around the world to network and exchange ideas about art education as well as receiving expert advice from the Getty Museum.

Arts Net Minnesota, a joint project of the Minneapolis Institute of the Arts, The Walker Center, Frederick R. Weisman Art Museum, and the Minnesota Museum of American Art, offers teachers an online discussion and a website with access to all four museums' collections, as well as curriculum guidance.

AFTER-SCHOOL PROGRAMS

Another way that museums have responded to school and community needs is by providing programs after school. One of the best known and well respected is Museum Team offered at the Brooklyn Children's Museum.

Museum Team is an after-school education and leadership program for neighborhood youth. It has been one of the greatest programming accomplishments in the 100-year history of the Brooklyn Children's Museum. Launched in 1987, it serves children from 7 to 18 years of age in the underserved Crown Heights and Bedford-Stuyvesant communities with a free after-school education program. Participants mentor younger children as they develop workplace skills and apprentice with museum staff. In its first two years the program served 900 children but has since more than doubled that number.

In 1998–1999 the Museum of Science and Industry in Chicago piloted After Class Explorers (ACE). This after-school program was designed for third- through eighth-grade students in selected Chicago Public Schools. Aimed at academically at-risk students, its goal was to engender enthusiasm and appreciation of science, math, and technology. A secondary goal of the ACE program was to strengthen the relationship between neighborhood schools and to help them learn more about the museum and its educational resources. During the 1998–1999 academic year, a total of 562 students from 13 schools participated in the program. Students worked on one of three topics based on their grade level: energy, flight, or environment.

AN AWARD-WINNING COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIP

This final example of a promising practice seems to showcase numerous opportunities for the community through a museum and school partnership. The 2001 Award for Innovation presented by the Association of Science and Technology Centers (ASTC) went to a unique museum–school partnership in eastern Massachusetts. The Explore and Discover Project was launched in 1993 to serve the working-class community of Uxbridge, Massachusetts, a former mill town. The partners included The Science and Discovery Museum of Acton, MA, the Uxbridge Public School District, the Uxbridge Police Department, the Blackstone Valley Chamber of Commerce, the Worcester Center for Crafts, the Uxbridge Historical Society and Garden Club and other area organizations. Among the project's successful efforts were a lending library of modular, hands-on science and math exhibits created by Uxbridge high school students; the Explore and Discover Youth Museum housed in a renovated mill building; the Outdoor Classroom, a science playground that serves preschoolers in the community's early childhood center; the Visiting Artist Studios workshop program; and a training program in inquiry-based learning methods for both students and teachers. (Extended information about Explore and Discover is available at the project's website at www.world.std.com/~brd/)

CONCLUSION

The best way to discover what partnership resources exist in a particular school district, or to create a partnership, is to call the museum and ask. You might be surprised at how much they can do to accommodate educators. Some of the best partnerships have been formed because one partner had a need and the other had the solution. Takahisa (1999) states that the best collaboration is a conversation, a hopping back and forth of ideas. In the process each side grows and changes. She calls for museums and schools to keep an open dialogue and allow creative ideas to flow out of those. Museum–school partnerships have already moved far beyond the classroom teacher simply bringing students to the museum for a field trip. I encourage all readers to take advantage of their local informal educational institutions in a wealth of ways. If you don't find what you are looking for in a particular museum, just ask. Perhaps your need will become the beginning of another successful partnership.

REFERENCES

American Association of Museums. (1992). *Excellence and equity: Education and the public dimension of museums.* Washington, DC: American Association of Museums.

Bruner, J. S. (1966). *Toward a theory of instruction.* Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

Commission on Museums for a New Century (1984). *Museums for a new century.* Washington, DC: American Association of Museums.

Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and Education.* New York: Collier Books.

Gardner, H. (1991, October 9). Making schools more like museums. *Education Week, 6*(6).

Hamilton, F. M. (1994). *Interactive museum school: An architectural and theoretical merging of educational typologies to create an optimal learning environment.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Florida, Gainesville.

Inverness Research Associates. (1996). *An invisible infrastructure: Institutions of informal science education.* Washington, DC: Association of Science and Technology Centers.

Lehman, S. N. & Igoe, K. (Eds.). (1981). *Museum school partnerships: Plans and programs* (Sourcebook #4). Washington, DC: Center for Museum Education, George Washington University.

Montessori, M. (1912). *The Montessori method* (A.E. George, Trans.). New York: Frederick A. Stokes.

Munley, M. E. (1991). New partnerships with schools. *Journal of Museum Education, 16,* 3.

Piaget, J. (1954). *The origins of intelligence.* New York: Basic Books.

Price, L. C., DiRocco, L., & Lewis, J. D. (1981). *Museum program survey 1979.* Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Rogoff, B. (1990). *Apprenticeship in thinking: Cognitive development in social context.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Stone, D. L. (1986). The development of a model to guide cooperative relationships between art museums and schools (Florida State University, 1986). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 47*(12), 4271A.

Takahisa, S. (1999). Thoughts on the school-museum dialogue. In N. F. Gibans (Ed.), *Bridges to understanding children's museums* (pp. 107–110). Cleveland, OH: Mandel Center for Nonprofit Organizations at Case Western Reserve University.

Voris, H. H., Sedzielarz, M., & Blackmon, C.P. (1986). *Teach the mind, touch the spirit: A guide to focused field trips for teachers.* Chicago: The Field Museum of Natural History.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

CHAPTER 8

IMPROVING K–16 EDUCATION THROUGH SCHOOL–COMMUNITY–UNIVERSITY PARTNERSHIPS[1]

Barbara Lieb

At Drew Elementary School in Philadelphia, students sell fresh produce from a wooden stand set up outside the school. School visitors and students buy grapes from them. Working with college students from the nearby University of Pennsylvania, they make change easily, thank the visitors, and when asked, explain why the fruit is healthier than their old diets. Their project is part of the Urban Nutrition Initiative (UNI) in West Philadelphia, which developed from an undergraduate seminar in 1990 into a multifaceted program connecting courses at the University of Pennsylvania with courses at Drew Elementary School, Turner Middle School, and University City High School in West Philadelphia. UNI has now evolved into activities that sustain a K–16 interdisciplinary curriculum for improving the health of students, their families, and their communities. The project includes 1,000 students in grades K–12 learning math, social studies, and language arts through such activities as fruit and vegetable stands at Drew and Turner; school gardens at the elementary and high schools, a community fitness program at the high school, and an urban agriculture and

Promising Practices to Connect Schools With the Community, pages 119–143
Copyright © 2002 by Information Age Publishing
All rights of reproduction in any form reserved.

microbusiness development project at the high school (Benson & Harkavy, 2002; Loveland, 2002).

In another project at Chicago's Loyola University, Alanah Fitch, a chemist, wanted to promote science education for minority students in the Chicago Public School system by involving them in an applied research project. The university's Policy Research Action Group encouraged her, so Professor Fitch and her undergraduate and graduate students engaged children from city middle schools in working with them to test lead in their communities. Two fifth-grade students even interned in the Loyola chemistry lab. Students' significant results on lead tests were provided to a variety of nearby communities. This initiative stimulated a revised chemistry curriculum and a major research program for the university as well as a revised school curriculum based on community goals (Nyden, Figert, Shibley, & Burrows, 1997).

These are two examples of partnerships among schools, communities, and universities that have been emerging throughout the nation for more than a decade. This chapter describes the development and characteristics of these partnerships, with a focus on those engaged in simultaneous improvement of outcomes for communities and learners. The term used here, school–community–university partnerships (SCUPS), is becoming more frequent in describing community-centered approaches to K–16 education. SCUPS projects discussed in this chapter may overlap with or incorporate service learning projects, but they have usually expanded beyond a single course or project into sets of ongoing relationships and programs connecting community improvement and education reform.

The notion of SCUPS as a special kind of partnership was recognized in 1998 at a forum in Washington, DC, on "Connecting Community Building and Education Reform: Effective School, Community, University Partnerships," jointly convened by the U.S. Department of Education and the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD; 1998a). Participants included researchers, K–16 educators, and representatives of community agencies involved in partnerships nationwide, along with their supporters from several federal agencies, foundations, and the private sector.

The forum followed a 1997 Wingspread Conference convened in Racine, Wisconsin, by the Johnson Foundation titled *Beyond Rhetoric: Strengthening Community–University Partnerships for Sustainable Urban Communities*. Participants included representatives from federal agencies and leaders of community–university partnerships. At that meeting, it was evident to many of us that networks of university educators and community builders, working separately or together, viewed schools as critical "barometers" of community health, but neither group had explicitly included them as partners in accomplishing their goals. Meanwhile, in the field of education, reform efforts included stronger connections between schools and

communities and between schools and higher education. But many of the linkages seemed to be occurring on separate tracks, between K–12 schools and their communities, between universities and communities, or between schools and universities.

The ED/HUD forum marked one of the first events where educators and community developers articulated the need for strengthening tri-partite connections among schools, communities, and institutions of higher education. Through study and observations of SCUPS over the past decade, I have come to believe that where these connections exist, there are positive changes for K–16 students and local communities. Moreover, when the connections evolve into partnerships, they exemplify strategies based on sound findings from education research, as well as successful multidisciplinary approaches to improving the welfare of citizens from early childhood through adulthood. To describe these partnerships, I address the following three questions: What forces are shaping the development of SCUPS? What are the characteristics of successful SCUPS? What guidelines can schools, communities, and universities use to develop SCUPS?

FORCES SHAPING THE DEVELOPMENT OF SCUPS

Partnerships among schools, communities, and universities operate in various formats spanning different time frames and modes of operation. This chapter focuses on those SCUPS that simultaneously address the needs of communities and the needs of learners, especially where both are highly at risk for failure. There is evidence that four prominent themes in education are converging and providing a catalyst for the development of SCUPS: (1) connecting education reform and community building, (2) building a cohesive K–16 education system, (3) reform of postsecondary education, and (4) contextual teaching and learning.

Connecting Education Reform and Community Building

Efforts to connect community building and education reform require "horizontal connections" among multiple agencies and institutions in a system, at the federal and local levels. Until recently, these connections appeared to be tenuous or missing. At the federal level, there were many programs focused on building or renewing local communities, but agencies tended to work in isolation, each to accomplish its own mission, whether it was crime reduction, safe air and water, affordable housing, or job preparation. Agencies such as the Departments of Housing and Urban

Development, Justice, Environmental Protection, Health and Human Services, and Labor, each addressed different aspects of community problems, most of which turned out to be difficult to solve in isolation from other problems. Likewise, the mission of "improving equity and excellence in education" was at first viewed as the sole responsibility of one of the youngest cabinet-level agencies, the U.S. Department of Education.

But in the past 10 years, with a sharper national focus on education and the recognition of its central role in every facet of American life, most federal agencies serving communities have realized their stake in assisting the Department of Education's mission. For example, a working group representing 30 federal agencies formed in 1997 to provide students and teachers with free learning resources on topics ranging from mathematics, science, language arts, history, and health through a jointly sponsored website, Federal Resources for Educational Excellence (*www.ed.gov.free*). Highlighting the even more critical need for community links to education in the wake of recent threats to children, U.S. Secretary of Education Rod Paige stated at the Washington, DC, conference on "Results-Based Strategies for Safe and Drug-Free Schools," "All the [education] reforms in the world won't mean a thing if we don't have safe classrooms for students to learn and teachers to teach" (Department of Education news release, August 5, 2002). Secretary Paige also cited collaborative efforts in the Department's publication with the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms for helping schools respond to bomb threats, as well as findings on student-instigated school violence in a report released in collaboration with the Secret Service.

The Department of Education's 21st Century Community Learning Centers program also supports connections between education reform and community building at the local level. It has enabled school districts to fund public schools as community education centers to keep children safe during their vulnerable after-school hours, while providing academic and recreational experiences for students and lifelong learning experiences for various members of the community. Many of these centers have transformed into full-fledged community schools, a concept that truly epitomizes connections between communities and education, as envisioned by the Washington, DC-based Coalition for Community Schools (2002):

> A community school, operating in a public school building, is open to students, families and the community before, during, and after school, seven days a week, all year long. It is operated jointly through a partnership between the school system and one or more community agencies. . . . The school is oriented toward the community, encouraging student learning through community service and service learning. . . . A family support center helps families with child-rearing, employment, housing and other services. Medical, dental and mental health services are readily accessible. . . .

Pardini (2001) described issues for school administrators in implementing various models of community schooling. She cites the major commitments needed by school boards, welfare agencies, and youth-serving institutions to promote collective decision making, but notes that a full array of services, including academic services can be provided to children and their families when turf struggles are overcome.

Just as educators recognize that educational gains are most likely to occur in communities that provide safe and nurturing environments for students, community builders recognize that their attempts are most effective when the quality of schooling is considered as a vital community component. The following argument from HUD provides an example:

> The divisions in urban America are still strong, but they are no longer strictly black and white. Urban America today is Korean, Dominican, Mexican, and Latvian, among many others—the greatest influx of new immigrants in nearly 100 years. . . . The complexity of this new melting pot casts a light on three serious but surmountable gaps facing cities at the turn of the 21st century—namely, how we work, how we are educated, and how and where we live. (U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, 1998b, p. 8)

Accordingly, urban leaders like Harry Felker, Mayor of Topeka, Kansas, are forging connections between improving community life and reforming education:

> The Mayor and a local businessman invited all county high school principals to have lunch and talk about any issues and concerns in which the city could be of assistance. Such topics as employment for youth, security at upcoming school events, graduation events, and gang activity were discussed at these monthly meetings. During the first year, the Mayor opened up the meetings to include middle school principals, since many of the same issues were surfacing at their level. Also included in these meetings have been state legislators, law enforcement officials, prosecutors, youth shelter representatives, juvenile court officials, and representatives of the state agency handling juvenile matters. These meetings have opened communication channels. Problems between youth shelters and schools have been solved, and feedback between schools and the district attorney on truancy matters has improved. (U.S. Conference of Mayors, Mayor City–School Partnerships to Support Education Youth Issues Task Force, 1995)

Research on service-oriented education programs also provides evidence of positive outcomes from connecting the work of communities with the work of schooling. Milbrey McLaughlin (2000), after 10 years of research on 120 youth-based organizations in 34 different cities, found impressive accomplishments for at-risk youth engaged in work with community organizations. The majority beat the odds for achieving academic

success, life skills, and attitudes of self-confidence and optimism. Other research by Eyler (2001) provides evidence that communities value the services provided by students involved in service learning programs.

Finally, economic considerations are driving the connections between education reform and community building. For example, Richard Rothstein (2000), an economist and researcher, notes:

> It is entirely unproductive for advocates of community investments to blame schools for the persistence of achievement gaps, while advocates of school investments blame community deficits for these gaps. . . . School improvement is unlikely to succeed if not complemented by improvements in other, equally important educational institutions, families, communities, and the social and economic environment. (pp. 30–31)

Building a Cohesive K–16 System

The second reform driving the evolution of SCUPS requires vertical connections, that is, building a more cohesive K–16 system. Mezzacappa (2001) describes the development of vertical connections between a public school and a university working collaboratively with the community:

> In 1985, Marie Bogle, a special education teacher at Bryant High School in Philadelphia, described herself as "one of those burned-out teachers." Then Bogle was tapped by her principal to work with the university to build Bryant into a true community school. She agreed reluctantly, in part because Penn had a bad reputation in the community, and she had noted resentment on the part of some of their "white kids" who came into the community. But Marie started teaching her children what a community was, and they began knocking on neighbors' doors introducing themselves. Soon she noticed miraculous changes in parent support and student learning, with her students, some of whom were severely handicapped, producing exciting oral histories. Marie's career was rejuvenated, and her work with Penn spread to other schools. "The Penn people they kept their word, that they were not just there to . . . give their own students an 'experience,' they were there to give and to learn from this community too." (pp. 113–115)

Thus, improving communities and education by strengthening collaboration among agencies requires horizontal connections among various components of the system, along with vertical connections among various levels of the education system. The intersection of these two dimensions is illustrated in Figure 8.1.

Historically, we have had two systems in every state, one for K–12 and one for postsecondary education, each often vying with the other for resources. The K–12 system developed first with its own curricula, accredi-

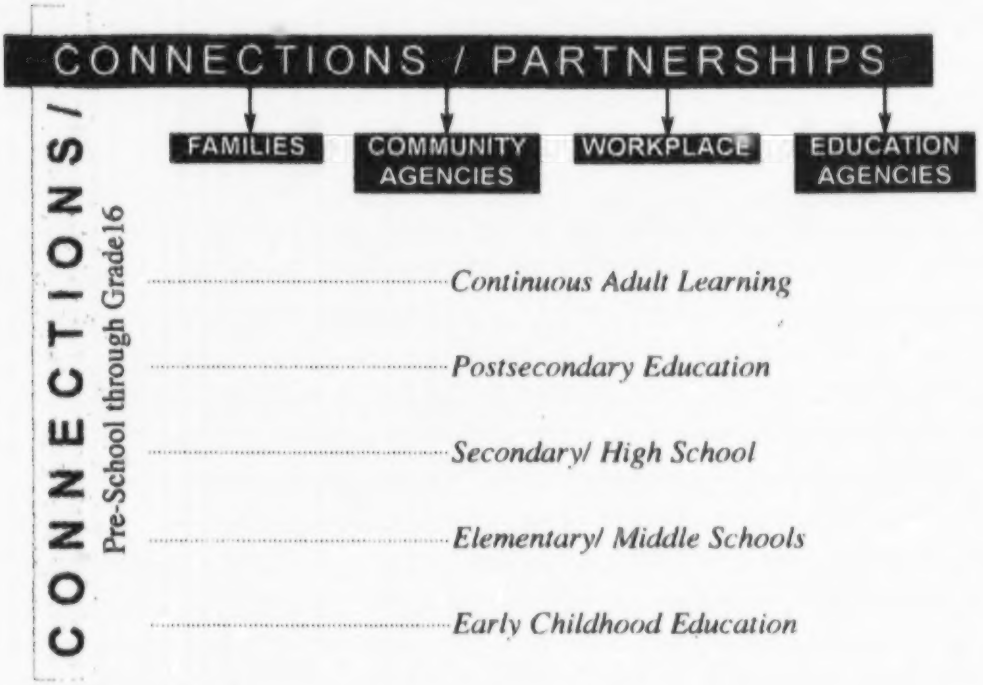


Figure 8.1. School/community/university partnerships.

tation, assessments, and funding. Postsecondary offices emerged as more people began to attend technical schools and colleges and universities. The personnel, accrediting groups, and issues addressed differ for each system, even though the same individuals (and perhaps others in their families) are served simultaneously or sequentially by both systems.

With emerging evidence that a high school diploma is no longer sufficient for economic success in today's knowledge-based society, there is more pressure for building a cohesive K–16 system of education. Since there are lifelong economic losses for students who do not complete college, there are increasing demands for policymakers to focus on student success, not just getting students through the door (Gladieux & Swail, 2000). Accordingly, the National Commission on the High School Senior Year recommended that policymakers pay more attention to the need for education beyond high school. The Commission noted that a college-preparatory-like curriculum will become the default high school curriculum, and recommended that elementary and middle schools reexamine their curricula to make sure all students are well prepared for demanding work at the next level (Barth, Haycock, Huang, & Richardson, 2001).

Among proponents of a more cohesive system is Charles B. Reed, Chancellor of California State University in 1999, who proposed a K–16 system of education for California: "Our public schools, community colleges, and

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

universities need to work together as a seamless community, engaged to provide our citizens a lifetime's worth of learning" (1999, p. 490). Reed's view is consistent with the following recent statement of 18 higher education leaders and 10 superintendents entitled "With Renewed Hope and Determination":

> Our nation is no longer well-served by an education system that prepares few to attend college to develop their minds for learned pursuits while the rest are expected only to build their muscles for useful labor. In the 21st century, all syudents must meet higher achievement standards in elementary, secondary, and post-secondary schools...to meet the challenges of work and citizenship. (Chenowith, 2000, p. 16)

Only recently have researchers begun to address in earnest what it will take to build these seamless systems on this vertical dimension. Findings by Kirst and Venezia (2001) show that teachers, parents, and students, especially minority students, need a deeper and earlier understanding of postsecondary requirements; students from economically disadvantaged backgrounds are often hampered by confusing signals regarding what they need to know and be able to do for postsecondary success:

> ...many students in middle- and low-level high school courses are not reached by recruitment efforts or by college counselors in their high schools, and many economically disadvantaged parents lack the experience and information to help their children prepare for college. (p. 94)

Kirst and Venezia (2001) also recognize that many education problems are created by structural inequalities in schools and society, but believe that by coordinating reform efforts across the K–16 system, we are most likely to improve academic outcomes for all students. This view is based on evidence that in order for students to succeed academically at all levels, they must consistently attend good K–12 schools with high-quality teachers who have a deep grasp of the subject matter they will teach. Postsecondary faculties have strong incentives to collaborate with K–12 educators in accomplishing these goals. If they can work with schools to improve standards, curriculum, and assessments, students entering their institutions are likely to need less remediation. In addition, higher education institutions benefit when they focus on preparing K–12 teachers who can help students meet the rigorous standards needed to ensure their success in college.

Moreover, there is clear evidence that the efforts and choices made by students as they proceed through the educational system contribute to their academic success. Their attendance, interest, and attention to their studies affect how well they perform at each level and influence their access and success at the next level (U.S. Department of Education, 2002).

Educators who have a clear perspective of the requirements of the total K–16 system can assist students in making many of these choices and in meeting academic requirements for each successive level in the system.

Representatives of various disciplines are beginning to realize the need for university collaboration with schools; for example, mathematics educator Kenneth Ross (1996) stated:

> We are confronted with a great need for increased communication between college faculty and secondary school teachers. College math faculty need to know the innovations taking place in the schools of their service area, and secondary teachers need to know that college mathematics is changing as well. (p. 546)

Similarly, history educator Leon Fink (2000), speaking to the American Historical Association, cited the following reasons for academic historians to become involved with schools:

> As the nation's most highly trained students (and presumably lovers) of history, surely we bear the burden of leadership in expanding historical education to the widest and deepest extent possible. And surely our closest professional neighbors in this quest are middle and secondary school social studies teachers. The imperative here is summarized in a simple rhetorical question: why should those teaching history to seventeen-year-olds live in an entirely separate professional world from those teaching the same subject to eighteen-year-olds? (p. 298)

The argument for coherence among academic levels was supported by the Consortium for Policy Research in Education (2000) in a policy brief, "Bridging the K–12/Postsecondary Divide with a Coherent K–16 System," which included findings from a forum of prominent K–12 and higher education leaders. Based on evidence of negative consequences of the disconnection between the two systems, participants called for K–16 partnerships that reform teaching, education, admission standards, and high school assessment.

Fortunately, many state and local policymakers are now attempting to build more cohesive systems. The Education Trust is leading the way with its quarterly newsletter, *Thinking K–16*, and its development of K–16 leadership councils across the country (Haycock, 1997). These activities are based on the principle that reforming higher education and K–12 cannot be done through separate efforts, but through the active collaboration of education and community leaders working together to reform K–16 education.

The Education Commission of the States (ECS) has also encouraged state policies that support more cohesiveness among the various levels of the academic systems. Noting that the American education system is really

several different systems, each operating on its own, the state education commissioners have called the movement toward P–16, "the next great education reform," (ECS, 2002, p. 1).

An ECS policy brief (2002) summarized ideas from experts on education reform that included the following characteristics of an ideal P–16 state system: access to high-quality preschool programs; individualized learning; a rich, challenging curriculum; a narrowing gap between minority and white students; exit requirements at one level of the education system that match entrance requirements at the next; and students fully understanding the productive role they play as citizens of a democracy. ECS concludes:

> P–16 is about aligning education, not isolating each sector; closing the achievement gap, not fighting over turf; and responding to new needs, not maintaining the status quo. It is the missing piece in the struggle to make our education system fulfill the needs of all our citizens. (p. 8)

An example of a locally led collaborative that turned around K–16 student achievement is the El Paso Collaborative for Academic Excellence, which exemplified both the horizontal connections between communities and education as well as the vertical P–16 academic connections. Among their activities were the following, described by Navarro and Natalicio (1999):

- Standards-based curricula drafting by the full K–16 faculty spectrum, reviewed by educators, community leaders, and business leaders
- Assessments aligned with the standards at all levels
- Collaborative arrangements with whole schools and systems (including community agencies)
- High school graduation requirements for all students aligned with university admission requirements
- Building a cadre of community leaders and parents willing to support long-term educational renewal
- Simultaneous renewal of K–12 and teacher education

Finally, there is evidence that these horizontal and vertical connections are influencing the way we prepare education professionals. In El Paso, reform was implemented with the University of Texas at El Paso as a critical partner that developed a new field-based model to "deepen future teachers' understanding of and connection to the families and communities of the schools served" (Drew, 2001, p. 56). In a broader perspective on this issue, Knapp and Associates (1998) describes research-based evidence and approaches to preparing university and school faculty as successful interprofessional educators who are able to work across human service disciplines to sustain long-term, mutually satisfying relationships with communities.

Reforming Postsecondary Education

A third impetus for the development of SCUPS comes from pressures to reform institutions of higher education. These pressures have emerged in part because of the increased demands for postsecondary education, an idea introduced in the previous section. Not only are more people going to college, but the characteristics of the student population have been changing radically over the past two decades. There is no longer a linear pattern of progressing from school to work, from school to postsecondary education, or from education to work. Individuals are increasingly working while going to college or moving back and forth from two- and four-year postsecondary institutions and the workforce. The typical college sophomore is no longer likely to be a 19-year-old, involved in clubs and extracurricular activities, focused on completing college in four years. Three-quarters of all undergraduates in 1999–2000 had at least one of the following nontraditional characteristics: they delayed enrollment in postsecondary education, attended part-time, worked full-time while enrolled, were considered financially independent, had dependents other than a spouse, were single parents, or did not have a high school diploma. Two-thirds of these students perceived their primary role as an employee, and many found that work limited their class and scheduling options. These students were more likely than "traditional" students to leave without a degree or were at greater risk for dropping out the first year (U.S. Department of Education, 2002).

While universities cannot be blamed for changes in student populations, some critics point to evidence that many have missed opportunities to take on leadership roles for ensuring that we have a democratic society that serves all citizens. Benson and Harkavy (2002), leaders in developing school–community–university partnerships, described this role in the earlier history of universities in the United States. They described the work of university leaders, notably John Dewey, who incorporated inquiry-based, real-world, action-oriented schooling in his notions of a participatory democratic citizenship.

From Harkavy's (2002) perspective, a civic university works with schools and communities to improve a democratic way of life. In advocating SCUPS, he views schools in these partnerships as taking on the roles they played early in the 20th century as the hub of urban centers, as community institutions that provide decentralized responses to significant community problems. They are university-assisted community schools designed to educate, engage, and serve all members of a community. Therefore, one mission of universities is to develop the knowledge and expertise in collaboration with schools and communities in achieving these goals.

Another proponent of this view, Checkoway (1997), considers the challenges and rewards of reinventing research universities for public service,

noting that such places have some of the greatest intellectual resources in the world that have not been readily accessible to most communities. His vision is at the heart of the rationale for SCUPS:

> Historically, the most important contributions of the university have been the creation of new knowledge and the education of students. But new models are emerging in which research universities develop knowledge and provide education in ways that also serve the community. The new vision is one in which excellence in research and teaching are inseparable from service, in accordance with the highest standards of the university. (p. 318)

Maurrasse (2001) described a movement underway to provide institutional support at major research universities for community partnerships, especially for those that remain in close proximity to poor urban neighborhoods. His research on university–community partnerships supported the idea of a higher education mission that includes local economic development, the quality of public schooling, enhancing experiential learning, and improving public health. But, Maurrasse emphasized that higher education must shift its internal way of doing business, "so that service becomes a higher priority in the actual core mission" (p. 193). In addition, he notes:

> Problems facing communities are by nature, multidisciplinary. All aspects of higher education bring something useful to the challenges facing urban neighborhoods. In fact, faculty members who have been engaged in solving problems in communities comment that they have been forced to reflect upon the limitations of their particular disciplines. The various disciplines need incentives to be engaged, and . . . they need to be shown how together their disciplines can be made useful to communities. (p. 190)

Other critics have questioned whether postsecondary institutions, as many now operate, are serving the education needs of contemporary students who enroll. For example, Twigg (2002) notes that today's postsecondary institutions have not adapted their offerings to meet the needs of students in the new economy that "requires a workforce capable of handling an exploding knowledge base" (p. 77). She notes:

> Adult students, with their primary emphasis on professional advancement, want learning that is as close to "just-in-time" as they can get. Yet almost all four-year institutions still follow a traditional term-based calendar, even for their online courses. This type of calendar offers little or no flexibility. (p. 88)

We know that over the past two decades, 12th graders have reported a declining interest in school, even though there appears to be no measurable change in the efforts they apply to their schoolwork (U.S. Department

of Education, 2002). If high school graduates do not feel academically motivated when they begin college, postsecondary institutions may face difficult challenges in providing traditional coursework to entering students. But declining interest has not kept students from enrolling. Rates of immediate college enrollment upon completing high school have increased since 1972; and despite increasing costs of college, college appears to be accessible for most people who want it. Low-income students appear as likely as middle-income students to enroll in a four-year institution (U.S. Department of Education, 2002).

However, as emphasized by Barton (1997), having more students start college will mean higher proportions who do not finish, and who often end up with neither an academic or occupational credential and money owed on college loans. The U.S. Department of Education (2001) reported that in 1995–96, 3.3 million students enrolled in postsecondary education for the first time. By 1998, 37% had left postsecondary education without either a two-year or four-year degree. Barton reports that the exodus from college begins early and is high between the freshman and sophomore years; in 1995 freshman persistence varied by type of institution and was highest in private universities offering a PhD (83%) and lowest in two-year institutions (52%).

There is strong evidence that rigorous academic preparation in high school is a key factor in whether students persist in college, and such preparation is more unlikely in schools with higher percentages of low-income students (Adelman, 1999). Thus low-income students are less likely than middle-class students to earn a degree, and less likely to achieve similar economic status. Despite their attempts to remediate poor student preparation, postsecondary institutions are failing to serve a high proportion of those students who need and want to pursue further education.

Harkavy (1998) summed up some of these concerns, including poor quality of teaching, a loss of university mission and a sense of scholarly community, along with the failure to promote responsible citizenship among its students.

Many educators agree that it will take time to change K–12 education in ways that adequately prepare current generations of students to meet the academic requirements of postsecondary education. Therefore, we must improve postsecondary education (including high academic expectations) to meet the needs of students who enroll now. An advocate of this view is Vincent Tinto (2000), whose research shows that many of the factors associated with students leaving postsecondary institutions are within the control of the college. For example, he found that in institutions with poor retention, students report low rates of student–faculty contact and feelings of isolation:

> Despite recent innovations . . . most students experience universities as isolated learners. . . . They continue to engage in solo performance and demonstration in what remains a largely show-and-tell learning environment. The experience of learning in higher education is, for most students, still very much a "spectator sport" in which faculty talk dominates and where there are few active student participants. . . . students typically take courses as detached, individual units, one course separated from another in both content and peer group, one set of understandings unrelated in any intentional fashion to what is learned in other courses. It is little wonder then that students seem so uninvolved in learning. (p. 48)

Tinto (2000) and others have been developing learning communities and collaborative pedagogy in postsecondary education to help students apply their learning using multiple disciplinary perspectives. There is evidence that Tinto's approach, which is compatible with the notion of SCUPS, appears to have a positive impact on student motivation and retention in postsecondary programs, especially in the critical freshman year. In a keynote address at the Southwest Regional Learning Communities Conference on February 28, 2002, Tinto outlined some of these results, which included the development of supportive peer groups, more time spent learning, and positive learning outcomes. The approach is characterized by high academic standards, learning environments actively shaped by students, and knowledge that is socially constructed through connection conversations among learners, students, and faculty. Among the strategies to actively involve students in learning, Tinto includes problem-based learning, service learning, and learning communities. As we shall see, these characteristics of the reforms in teaching and learning occurring at some postsecondary institutions are highly congruent with approaches embedded in SCUPS.

Contextual Teaching and Learning

Finally, the fourth impetus influencing the rationale and development for SCUPS is from emerging knowledge about learning and motivation that supports connections between theory and real-world contexts. The term "contextual teaching and learning" is an arbitrary label that includes an array of strategies for connecting theories and concepts to real-world contexts such as the workplace, the community, the school to its environs, the family, or any place where human living occurs. Terms under this rubric can include experiential learning, active learning, learner-centered instruction, problem-based learning, work-based learning, community-based learning, and service learning. The derivation of this kind of learning may be found in John Dewey's ideas, emphasizing the necessity of con-

necting actual experience and schooling. His notions embody most of the principles of contextual learning that we are rediscovering today (Weinbaum & Rogers, 1995).

The learner may apply specific subject matter to solution of problems, as I observed a tech-prep student doing in Oklahoma City when he worked jointly with his mathematics teacher and his plant supervisor to apply principles of trigonometry to a problem in the factory. Or, the learner may work with others to identify a problem and apply concepts from multiple disciplines to its solution, as students did in the Memphis Maps collaboration, a highly successful SCUPS:

> The Memphis Maps collaboration began as a demonstration program in Memphis, Tennessee during the summer of 1996. Eight high school students were trained to conduct community surveys and use Geographic Information Systems (GIS) technology in mapping their inner city neighborhood. The training enhanced students' awareness of their neighborhood, and produced important information for the neighborhood's community organization, the Orange Mound Collaborative (OMC). Technical and financial support came from the University of Memphis, Memphis City Schools, the City of Memphis Division of Housing and Community Development, the OMC, Shelby County Community Agency, Community Foundation of Greater Memphis, and Nations Bank. (Hyland, Cox, & Martin, 1998, p. 66)

Contextual teaching and learning approaches are aligned with recent findings on how the brain works and how students learn (National Research Council, 1999a). For example, a core learning principle included by the National Research Council (1999b), in its summary of how people learn is:

> Students come to the classroom with preconceptions about how the world works. If their initial understanding is not engaged, they may fail to grasp the new concepts and information that are taught, or they may learn them for purposes of a test but revert to their preconceptions outside the classroom. (p. 10)

One illustration of this principle comes from my own teaching of teacher candidates who were interning some years ago on an Indian reservation in Nebraska. In developing strategies for helping fifth graders learn geography, the interns discovered that their students had little knowledge about their own state or the rest of the country. To test this, we asked them to draw pictures of their reservation in relation to the rest of the United States. Their initial drawings depicted the reservation as most of the space of the United States. We noticed that they were able to draw accurate placements of the town, the river, and other landmarks close to home, but they had little concept of where these fit in relation to a neighboring reserva-

tion or within the State of Nebraska. We began our instruction from their constructs, gradually altering their perceptions through field trips to the other reservations and to the cities of Omaha and Lincoln. Eventually, my interns and I placed our home cities and states into their emerging maps. Using concepts from their arithmetic, we measured relative distances and learned about miles and map scales. Over time, we could see in their maps their changing constructions of their reservation and the United States (and ultimately the rest of the world). As the fifth graders altered their cognitive and concrete maps with each new experience, the interns learned how futile our teaching would have been had we expected the students to "tack on" new geographical information to their preconceptions of the world. In this way, these prospective teachers had discovered through contextual teaching and learning one of the key principles of learning, namely that new information must build on students' preconceptions of the world and their roles within it.

Another principle of learning reflected in most SCUPS projects was cited by the National Research Council: "A metacognitive approach to instruction can help students learn to take control of their own learning by defining learning goals and monitoring their progress in achieving them" (1999b, p. 13).

Metacognition involves *intrapersonal* communication, which is reflecting on what you understand and what you are learning and thinking. It may be stimulated through interactions with others, which involve processes of interpersonal communication. The process often includes written or oral dialogues with oneself about predicting outcomes, explaining events in order to understand them, planning ahead, and sharing with others. Metacognitive strategies are provided initially by the teacher and ultimately students can "prompt themselves and monitor their own comprehension without teacher support" (National Research Council, 1999b, p. 14).

SCUPS offer ideal contexts for students at all academic levels to practice both intrapersonal and interpersonal communication; since students involved in the partnerships apply research and experience collaborative teaching and learning, all partners need frequent reflection and communication with others about what they have learned and about plans for the future.

Many people who study learning emphasize the need to change from the factory model of schooling, which focused on skills and attitudes appropriate to a manufacturing economy of the mid-19th century. For example, Abbott (1995) described new competencies that we need for the modern, knowledge-based society that involve abilities of abstraction (the manipulation of thoughts and patterns), systems thinking, experimentation, collaboration, and mastery of new technologies of information and communication. His descriptions of these higher-order thinking skills fit notions of contextual

teaching and learning, and the goals of SCUPS: "Higher order thinking and problem-solving skills grow out of direct experience, not simply teaching. They require more than classrooms. They need active involvement in the real-life experiences of the community" (p. 11).

Abbott also notes the dysfunctional nature of our communities that create hopelessness, cynicism, and despair for many learners. He believes that new understandings of human learning show the "amazing human capability to learn in a collaborative, problem-solving, sense-making way," which provides solutions to problems of both education and the community (pp. 11–12).

In short, contextual teaching and learning is impacting K–16 education and contributing in major ways to the rationale for SCUPS. The following Principles of Learning and Communities of Practice from the Institute for Research on Learning (Eckert, Goldman, & Wenger, 1997) appear to be at the core of this movement and at the heart of partnerships:

- Learning is fundamentally social.
- Knowledge is integrated in the life of communities.
- Learning is an act of participation.
- Knowing depends on engagement in practice.
- Engagement is inseparable from empowerment.
- Failure to learn is the result of exclusion from participation.
- People are natural lifelong learners (people learn what enables them to participate in communities of practice). (p. 5)

CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL SCUPS

The model then for a successful school–community–university partnership embodies the four themes driving education reform described in the preceding sections:

- The partnership strengthens horizontal connections—the integration of efforts across community agencies and education institutions—in ways that serve all of the partners.
- The partnership strengthens vertical connections—which are the transitions for learners between academic levels from early childhood through adulthood—to promote cohesion in the education system;
- The partnership facilitates the reform of institutions of higher education so that students and faculty are engaged in service to communities and schools in ways that enable them to develop and apply state-of-the-art knowledge for joint problem solving.

- The partnership incorporates principles of contextual teaching and learning grounded in scientific principles of how in-depth learning occurs and promotes communities of learners among the partners.

Many of the foregoing outcomes are exemplified in Joy Dryfoos's (1997) description of a school in New York City that has links to communities and higher education:

> In a *Safe Passage School*, an inner city middle school with 1,000 students in grades 6 through 8, staff members are devoted to providing successful academic programs and safe transitions from childhood to adulthood. Among their partners are numerous community agencies and universities. The educational program divides the school into five houses of 200 students each who stay together for three years with eight teachers, a director, and counselor/mentors. Each house is connected to a university, usually through a related curricular department such as arts, sciences, medicine or business. University faculty assist with curriculum and university students assist teachers in the school and organize after school activities and school wide events. Middle school students visit the campuses to familiarize themselves with college life and to establish connections for the future. (p. 192)

In the foregoing example, the vertical connections are quite obvious, and improving the lives of the students is a joint goal for both the education agencies and the community agencies. In the next example of a Philadelphia project, the vertical connections are present in the relationships between the school and the university students. Student activities depict a project that not only improves the community, but engages the community as the "laboratory" for a learning community of students in schools and the university.

> One year, a gas explosion gutted five row houses a few blocks from McClure Elementary School. Fourth graders worked with photos of the brick wall that remained to create architectural models of gardens they designed to replace the burned out area. Another year's class adopted a 200-year-old historic house slated for destruction, making a large model of the house out of cardboard and glue. They approached local civic groups and lobbied for its restoration into a community meeting place. These and other projects are supported by a Philadelphia group, Foundation for Architecture, which sends students from local universities and architects into classrooms to work with children from kindergarten through high school. (Cushman, 2000, pp. 5–7)

Holland and Ramaley (1998) reported on the value of SCUPS and how we can assess them. Among the features that they list for effective partnerships are the following cited by involved partners:

- Improvement in education and communities that could not have been accomplished without the partnership.
- Improved teaching connected to reality in both schools and universities.
- Improved research since better questions are asked and these provide improved learning experiences for students.

More specifically, Ramaley (1998), in her analysis of university–community partnerships (many of which include schools), cites the following among the characteristics of universities in successful partnerships:

- Persons in the university with a flexible view of knowledge, acknowledging that expertise exists outside the academy as well as within.
- A desire to learn from partners in collaborative projects, not just to teach them.
- A willingness to place some of its resources in the hands of a community-based advisory or governing committee.
- A recognition that collaborations evolve and are dynamic.
- An ongoing process of self-evaluation and tracking program impacts from the perspective of all participants.
- A role consistent with traditional interest in scholarship, primarily research and education. (pp. 89–90)

In addition, there should be continuous efforts to assess the partnership, and whether it is achieving the goals of all partners. Holland and Ramaley (1998) described the need to assess the progress of the partnership, especially in accomplishing long-term goals. They advocate continuous documentation, noting that where efforts are knowledge-driven, we need to ensure that it is promoting shared learning among all participants. As assessments for higher education and schools, they cite such indicators as strengthening ties to communities, increased citizenship, enhanced student learning, and professional enrichment for faculty. For communities, it might include increased capacity to meet immediate needs, identification of new resources, contributing to the strength of the education system, leveraging funding, and so on.

However, the evaluation process would depend on the nature of the partnership. Sockett (1998) developed a typology of partnerships. Each of the following four types would require different criteria for evaluation, since they vary on a dimension of growth and involvement:

1. Service relationships, where an individual or unit volunteers support a school-related function;
2. Exchange relationships, where the parties exchange resources for their mutual benefit.

3. Cooperative relationships, where the parties plan together and share responsibilities.
4. Systemic and transformative relationships, where the parties share responsibility for planning, decision making, funding, operations, and evaluation of activities, and where each institution is transformed through the relationship. (p. 76)

Finally, most SCUPS, especially those that are more systemic and ongoing, appear to incorporate some or all of the following outcomes in the goals or objectives of their partnerships. These include improved chances for students' immediate academic success, connections for students and teachers to their communities and for the communities to their schools, and quality of community life. In addition, SCUPS focus on increased student aspirations and success in higher education and feelings of empowerment for changing academic and civic life. Another common outcome is development of multidisciplinary approaches to problem solving.

GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING SCUPS

How do partnerships begin and develop? Universities, communities, or even a school may initiate partnerships. In the foregoing example of a Philadelphia project, the school was the initiator in seeking community and university help. If a university has not approached schools, an individual principal, working with his or her teachers, might use internal meetings or professional development sessions to investigate possible partnerships. If there are outreach or partnership offices in nearby colleges and universities, faculty members and community agency people with whom they are working might be invited to join school discussions to investigate opportunities for K–12 and university students to work together on community-based projects. Individual teachers have found ways of bringing students and faculty directly to their classrooms to answer student questions about issues they are investigating in their curriculum or to enhance learning of specific subjects.

For example, a third grade teacher invited an official from the State Wildlife Commission to talk about the overabundance of deer in the state. Working with university students and faculty, the students began to track deer in their state. They learned not only about tracking deer, using math concepts to do this, but in the context of language arts instruction the students debated (in the presence of a community audience) the ethics of killing an overabundance of deer. In another class, young children explored the cost of littering in their community, and worked with university students to prepare a community campaign to stop littering.

Sometimes it is the community in conjunction with the university that initiates a partnership. At the 1998 HUD/ED forum, Sheila Altieri-Perkins, executive director of the West Humboldt Park Family Community Center, described their partnership with DePaul University's Egan Urban Center in two stages, the first initiated by the community and the second by the university. Using monies from HUD's program supporting Community Outreach Partnership Centers (COPCs), Perkins designed a center to study issues on youth development, economic development, housing, and employment. In stage 2, DePaul chose West Humboldt Park as a partner for its COPC project because it was in a deteriorating community on the west side of Chicago, overrun by gangs and drug dealers. Many school students did not know about the university. School and university students became involved with the project, especially in the health center, and the project ultimately was able to leverage other funding. According to Perkins, one positive outcome was the community's acceptance of the university's coming in to the community to do the research that leads to policy and program development.

In another example, a community agency reached out to the New York City Board of Education and to universities. Paula Gavin, president of the YMCA of Greater New York, suggested that they partner with the Board to reach out to the 200 neediest schools, creating a Virtual Y, with a free after-school program emphasizing literacy from 3:00 P.M. to 6:00 P.M. each day. Gavin also partnered with the United Way and America Reads programs, developing relationships with the principals and families connected to the schools. Originally the program evaluation was done by one university partner, Fordham University, but eventually 25 universities signed up to work with the project by involving their college work/study students.

In more enduring, long-range partnerships to improve communities, as the partnership progresses, it must be sharply focused and committed to the development of relationships that ensure community involvement. Principles that are important in developing the partnership come from a variety of SCUPS, and include:

- Long-standing problems of blame or conflicts (e.g., the university encroaching on community land) must be worked on as the agendas are set that respond to current community needs.
- Development of mutual trust, equal influence, and benefits for complementary needs.
- Ensuring support by university and school officials for the value to students in their development and learning.
- Keeping a focus on K–16 academic attainment related to the project.
- Emphasizing benefits and goals for each partner.

- Focusing on shared learning and ongoing building of capacity for reform.
- Developing a community-based common vision and agenda and agreed-upon strategies to develop it.

Fewell, Overtoom, and Jones (2002), in summarizing lessons learned in Ohio about SCUPS, cite as important aspects of success: the willingness to listen and learn from all parties, respect for cultural diversity and expectations, taking time to communicate effectively and achieve consensus of all partners, and viewing assets of the community, rather than over-emphasis on needs (pp. 74–75).

Finally, the partnership must be conceptualized as sets of relationships between individuals, among communities of learners, and among organizations or groups with differing needs. Relationships are initiated, maintained, and dissolved through messages that are communicated over time. In describing campus-community partnerships, Bringle and Hatcher (2002), review important concepts in relational communication as they apply to partnerships. They describe the need for communication that is sensitive to community concerns and open and honest about what resources will be provided, especially by the university. It is also necessary to agree on whether the partner relationship will be short-term or enduring and whether outcomes from ongoing assessments indicate that the outcomes are meeting all partners' expectations.

In summary, school–community–university partnerships—whether they are long range or short range in nature and whether they tend toward formal or less formal arrangements among partners—provide us with an approach for enriching student and faculty learning at all levels of the education system and for contributing to a more cohesive K–16 system. Such partnerships appear to be a promising approach for incorporating the best of what we know about how children and adults become engaged learners and more involved citizens through contextual teaching and learning. Therefore, the approach may offer us some solutions for problems of how to recruit and retain good teachers, how to engage families in their children's learning, how to enrich postsecondary education so that students complete their degrees, and how to involve all of us more knowledgeably in our democratic way of life.

NOTE

1. This chapter is intended to promote the exchange of ideas among researchers and policymakers. The views expressed in it are part of ongoing research and analysis and do not necessarily reflect the position of the U.S. Department of Education.

REFERENCES

Abbott, J. (1995). A new synthesis for effective learning. *Wingspread Journal, 17,* 10–12.

Adelman, C. (1999). *Answers in the toolbox: Academic intensity, attendance patterns, and bachelor's degree attainment.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Barth, P., Haycock, K., Huang, S., & Richardson, A. (2001). *Youth at the crossroads: Facing high school and beyond.* Washington, DC: The Education Trust, Inc.

Barton, P. E. (1997). *Toward inequality: Disturbing trends in higher education.* Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Benson, L., & Harkavy, I. (2002, Fall-Winter). The role of community-higher education-school partnerships in educational and social development and democratization. *Universities and Community Schools, 7* [Online], 5–28. Available: http://www.upenn.edu/ccp

Bringle, R. G., & Hatcher, J. A. (2002). Campus–community partnerships: The terms of engagement. *Journal of Social Issues, 58,* 503–516.

Checkoway, B. (1997). Reinventing the research university for public service. *Journal of Planning Literature, 11,* 307–319.

Coalition for Community Schools. (2002). *A handbook for state policy leaders: Community schools* [Online]. Available: http://communityschools.org

Consortium for Policy Research in Education. (2000, June). *Bridging the K–12/postsecondary divide with a coherent K–16 system* [Online]. Available: http://upenn.edu/gse/cpre

Cushman, K. (2000). Students solving community problems: Serious learning takes on a new look. *Challenge Journal: The Journal of the Annenberg Challenge, 4* [Online], 1–8. Available: http://aisr.brown.edu/challenge

Drew, D. P. (2001). The El Paso collaborative for academic achievement. In G. I. Maeroff, P.M. Callan, & M.D. Usdan (Eds.), *The learning connection: New partnerships between schools and colleges* (pp. 51–59). New York: Teachers College Press.

Dryfoos, J. G. (1997). *Safe passage: Making it through adolescence in a risky society.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Eckert, P., Goldman, S., & Wenger, E. (1997). The school as a community of engaged learners. *Wingspread Journal, 19*(3), 4–6.

Education Commission of the States. (2000, August). *P–16 collaboration in the states* (ECS StateNotes: P–16) [Online]. Available: http://www.ecs.org/clearinghouse/13/58/1358.pdf

The Education Trust. (1998). *Thinking K–16, 3*(2) [Online], 1–15. Available: http://www.edtrust.org

Eyler, J. (Fall, 2002). *Reflection: Linking service and learning—Linking students and communities.* Vol. 58, No. 3, pp. 517–534.

Fewell, B.W., Overtoom, C.G., & Jones, O.P. (2002). Organizing the campus to be in partnership with schools and the community: Ohio State's campus collaborative. *Universities and Community Schools,* 7:65–75 (available through www.upenn.edu/ccp).

Fink, L. (2000). Affecting the great continuum of K-16 history education. *The History Teacher, 33,* 297–302.

Gladieux, L. E., & Swail, W. S. (2000, May). Beyond access: Improving the odds of college success. *Phi Delta Kappan, 81*(9), 688.

Harkavy, I. (1998). *School–community–university partnerships: Effectively integrating community building and education reform* [Online]. Available: http://www.upenn.edu/ccp/Bibliography/Ed_HUD_paper.html

Harkavy, I. (1999, Fall-Winter). School–Community–University Partnerships. *Universities and Community Schools.* 6: 7–24.

Harkavy, I. (2002). *More than the sum of its parts: Faculty work in the democratic civic university* [Online]. Plenary Address to the American Association for Higher Education Meeting on Faculty Roles and Responsibility. Available: http://www.middlebury.edu/~slse/Service-Learning/Harkavy-speech.html

Haycock, K. (1997, Fall). K–16 reform. What's in it for schools? What's in it for universities? *Thinking K–16.* 3: 6–10.

Holland, B. A., & Ramaley, J. A. (January 9, 1998). *What partnership models work to link education and community building? How do we know?* Paper presented at the ED/HUD Forum, Washington, DC.

Hyland, S., Cox, D., & Martin, C. (1998). Memphis maps. *Metropolitan Universities, 8*(4), 65–74.

Kirst, M., & Venezia, A. (2001, September). Bridging the great divide between secondary schools and postsecondary education. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 92–97.

Knapp, M. and Associates, (1998). *Paths to partnership: University and community as learners in interprofessional education.* NY: Rowman and Littlefield.

Loveland, E. (2002). Connecting communities and classrooms. *Rural Roots, 3,* 1–9.

Maurrasse, D. (2001). *Beyond the campus: How colleges and universities form partnerships with their communities.* New York: Routledge.

Mayor City–School Partnerships to Support Education Youth Issues Task Force. (1995). *City–School Partnerships to Support Education* [Online]. Available: http://www.usmayors.org/uscm/best_practices/bp_volume_3/topeka_3.htm

McLaughlin, M. W. (2000). *Community counts: How youth organizations matter for youth development.* Washington, DC: Public Education Network.

Mezzacappa, D. (2001). Penn and West Philadelphia. In G. I. Maeroff, P. M. Callan, & M. D. Usdan (Eds.), *The learning connection: New partnerships between schools and colleges* (pp. 109–119). New York: Teachers College Press.

National Center for Education Statistics. (n.d.). *Student effort and educational progress: Postsecondary persistence and progress* [Online]. Available: http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/2002/section3/indicator23.asp

National Research Council. (1999a). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school. Committee on Developments in the Science of Learning.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

National Research Council. (1999b). *How people learn: Bridging research and practice* [Online]. Washington, DC: National Academy Press. Available: http://nap.edu/

Navarro, S., & Natalicio, D. (1999). Closing the achievement gap in El Paso: A collaboration for K–16 renewal. *Phi Delta Kappan. 80*(8), 597–601.

Nyden, P., Figert, A., Shibley, M., & Burrows, D. (1997). *Building community: Social science in action.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.

Rainwater, Terese. (2000). *P–16 collaboration in the states* [Online]. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States. Available: http://www.ecs.org/html/issue.asp?issueid=76

Ramaley, J. (1998). Expanding and sustaining partnerships. *Metropolitan Universities, 8*(4), 89–98.

Reed, C. B. (1999, June 1). Collaborating for excellence: Building a seamless K–16 system for California. *Vital Speeches of the Day, 65*(16), 490–494.

Ross, K. (1996). Mathematics reform for K–16. *The Mathematics Teacher, 89*, 546–547.

Rothstein, R. (2000). Finance fungibility: Investigating relative impacts of investments in schools and non-school educational institutions to improve student achievement [Online]. In *Improving educational achievement: A volume exploring the role of investments in schools and other supports and services for families and communities.* Washington, DC: The Finance Project and Center on Education Policy. Available: www.financeproject.org

Sockett, H. (1998, Spring). Levels of partnership. *Metropolitan Universities.* 8: 75–82.

Tinto, V. (2000). Learning better together: The impact of learning communities on student success in higher education. *Journal of Institutional Research, 9*(1).

Tinto, V. (2002, February 28). *Taking student learning seriously.* Keynote address presented at the Southwest Regional Learning Communities Conference. Tempe, Arizona, February 28–March 1, 2002. (pp. 1–8). (available at *www.maricopa.edu* maricopa center for learning and instruction).

Twigg, C. (2002). The impact of the changing economy on four-year institutions of higher education: The importance of the Internet. In National Research Council (2002). *The knowledge economy and postsecondary education: Report of a workshop.* Committee on the impact of the changing economy of the educational system. P.A. Graham & N.G. Stacey (Eds.). Center for Education. Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2002, June). *The condition of education 2002* (NCES 2002-025). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. (1998a). *HUD/ED work to strengthen the university/community/school connection* [Online]. Available: http://www.oup.org/pubs/copcsp98/hudedwork.html

U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. (1998b). *The state of the cities* [Online]. Available: http://huduser.org

Weinbaum, A., & Rogers, A. M. (1995). *Contextual learning: A critical aspect of school-to-work transition programs.* Washington, DC: National Institute for Work and Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED381666)

ISBN 1-930608-96-9

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

U.S. Department of Education
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
National Library of Education (NLE)
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

NOTICE

Reproduction Basis

[X] This document is covered by a signed "Reproduction Release (Blanket)" form (on file within the ERIC system), encompassing all or classes of documents from its source organization and, therefore, does not require a "Specific Document" Release form.

[ ] This document is Federally-funded, or carries its own permission to reproduce, or is otherwise in the public domain and, therefore, may be reproduced by ERIC without a signed Reproduction Release form (either "Specific Document" or "Blanket").